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ABSTRACT

This issue reproduces articles adapted from country reports presented to a Regional Seminar on Adult Education and Development in Asia and Oceania, Bangkok, November 1980. A summary of adult and nonformal education in the region forms section 1. Highlights of the country articles in section 2 include Afghanistan--national literacy campaign; Australia--New South Wales programs, adult education associations, and management education for farmers; Bangladesh--evaluation of the national literacy effort, adult primers; Burma--national literacy campaign; China--nonformal education; India--national rural functional literacy project; Indonesia--community education (Penmas); Lao People's Democratic Republic--literacy, complementary education; Malaysia--nonformal education; Nepal--literacy; New Zealand--Maori continuing education, broadcasting, adult reading assistance; Pakistan--education in rural development, integrated functional education; Philippines--accreditation and equivalency, nonformal education; Republic of Korea--Saemaul (New Village) education; Singapore--continuing education, retraining; Socialist Republic of Viet Nam--literacy, complementary education; Sri Lanka--curriculum reform, adult education centers; Thailand--functional literacy and family planning project; and Fiji--rural youth movement, local resource centers. Articles on Japan and Hong Kong also appear. Three special articles on adult education and rural development, industrial/urban development, and workers' education form section 3. Section 4 is a 33-page bibliographical supplement. (YLB)

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PREFACE

This Bulletin, a special issue, reproduces articles adapted from country reports presented to a Regional Seminar on Adult Education and Development in Asia and Oceania, Bangkok, November 1980 (now renamed Asia and the Pacific). The articles, written according to the emphasis given to the topic in the particular country as well as the viewpoints of the particular author, show a wide variation in scope.

A summary of adult and non-formal education in the region of Asia and the Pacific forms Section One of this issue. The summary covers not all of the countries reporting herein, but those 16 which had responded to a questionnaire sent out by Unesco Bangkok.

The country articles in Section Two are supplemented by papers presented to the Seminar from Fiji and Hong Kong. These were offered by participants sponsored by the Asian-South Pacific Bureau of Adult Education (ASPBAE). Highlights of the articles are given in the list below:

Afghanistan : some history, a national literacy campaign using a participatory approach;

Australia : two programmes in New South Wales: Adult Education Associations and Management Education for Farmers;

Bangladesh : evaluation of part of the national literacy effort, adult primers, recommendations;

Burma : national literacy campaign: functions of subcommittees; curriculum; training;

China : history, non-formal education including peasants' education;

India : field study of a national rural functional literacy project;

Indonesia : an analysis of community education (*Penmas*) in the form of vocational skills apprenticeship;

Japan : two aspects of adult education—public vocational training centres and special training schools; also adult education for the aged;

Lao People's Democratic Republic : mass literacy activities; literacy and complementary education in mountainous areas;

Malaysia : non-formal education : further education; in-service education; vocational, technical and professional education; education for civic competence; a functional literacy programme and a work-oriented group;

Nepal : national literacy policy, a functional adult educational programme, curriculum and training programme, evaluation;

New Zealand : training, Maori continuing education, broadcasting, adult reading assistance;

Pakistan : statistics, education in rural development, and integrated functional education;

Philippines : accreditation and equivalency, an educational placement test, non-formal education;

Republic of Korea : *Saemaul* (New Village) education in both rural areas and factories;

Singapore : continuing education, testing, part-time skills, training and retraining;

Socialist Republic of Viet Nam : achievement of 90 per cent literacy, 'complementary education' for agriculture and production technology;

Sri Lanka : curriculum reform, full-time technical education units, adult education centres;

Thailand : curriculum and teaching materials development for a functional literacy and family planning project, disseminating information through the use of multi-media;

Fiji : *Yavubuli* rural youth movement, local resource centres, community radio, self-reliance, credit building facility;

Hong Kong : statistics, problems in implementing adult education, the role of the Association of Continuing Education;

Three special articles on Aspects of Adult Education form Section Three. Section Four, the Bibliographical Supplement, is extensive. More titles contributed by readers would nevertheless be welcome in the Unesco library in Bangkok.

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SECTION ONE

ADULT EDUCATION AND DEVELOPMENT: REGIONAL TRENDS

The use of terms

There is considerable diversity in the use of terms referring to the education of adults within the region. Moreover, the terms used and the meanings attached to them are changing in several countries, reflecting change in actual policy priorities and programmes. Some countries use adult education or an equivalent term in a very comprehensive manner; others have a precise and restricted meaning, such as basic education for adults. The term non-formal education has recently been adopted in several countries and can be used in more than one sense.

The most comprehensive definition in use regionally is that for continuing education, the preferred term in New Zealand. This includes since the mid-1970s "all aspects of education after school, whether full-time or part-time, extramural, on-the-job, vocational or non-vocational /for/ persons who are no longer full-time pupils within the primary and secondary school systems." While it is "legally defined as all education, including vocational education, provided for persons who have left school and are no longer legally required to attend, strictly, it does not include education at a university or teachers' college, but it is sometimes used loosely, to mean all post-school learning." On the other hand, continuing education in New Zealand is sometimes used in a much narrower sense to refer to the updating of professional groups. The term adult education in New Zealand "tends to be used in common speech but it carries only the meaning of 'hobby' activities." Other terms which are used are life-long education, second-chance education and community education. The last of these tends to mean non-vocational, self-enrichment courses, but sometimes also means something quite different: "an emphasis within primary and secondary education, e.g. alternative or open schools." One categorization of different kinds of adult or continuing education programmes under discussion in New Zealand classifies six types: adult basic education; community education; general-interest education; academic-technical education; vocational training; and business and professional continuing education programmes.

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* This section describes trends in and functions of adult education in Asia and the Pacific, and was prepared by the Unesco Regional Office for Education with the co-operation of the Asia-South Pacific Bureau of Adult Education (ASPBAE) on the basis of information and data received from 16 Member States in the region responding to a questionnaire sent by this Office. Their contribution is acknowledged with appreciation. The Member States are: Afghanistan, Australia, Bangladesh, China, India, Indonesia, Japan, Nepal, New Zealand, Pakistan, Papua New Guinea, Republic of Korea, Socialist Republic of Viet Nam, Sri Lanka, Thailand and the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics.

The usage employed by New Zealand in contributing to this survey—"all post-compulsory schooling including university, professional, technical and community"—is thus wider than almost any other usage in the region. Another very wide usage is that of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics (USSR). This however excludes formal basic education at whatever level: "Adult education is understood as an education of adult members of the society who need upgrading of their general or professional education. . . The following terminology is used in relation to adult education in the USSR—general adult education, continuing education, professional upgrading."

Sri Lanka is one of those countries where non-formal education has come into use during the past decade, whereas adult education has been in use from the 1940s. The scope of non-formal education is very comprehensive in terms of learning objectives, individuals and groups to be reached, and methods employed. "Adult education can be defined as the provision of learning experiences relevant to national objectives and the felt needs, personal, social, economic and political of all above school-going age in the community, with the participation of all agencies, organizations and institutions in the country, both formal and non-formal." Strictly speaking, as in New Zealand, the term thus embraces all post-school age education, whether within or outside the formal system. Another term which has been introduced into Sri Lanka very recently is total education, in the name of the newly-formed national non-governmental adult education association.

Another country where there is recent change of scope and understanding is India. "With the launching of the National Adult Education Programme on 2 October 1978 the term . . . is now better understood. It takes into account various aspects: out-of-school education for adults, oral and written and audio-visual ways of imparting knowledge, skills, attitudes and values to adults, and it also includes numerous subjects in very different fields such as literacy, vocational training, civic, professional education, economic education, cultural development . . . Adult education in

India is now considered one of the means to the full development of the personality of an individual. It is looked upon as a method of human resource development including literacy, functional development and creation of awareness among the poor regarding their inherent power to determine their own destinies."

Several other countries adopt quite clear and comprehensive definitions which exclude formal post-school education. Thus Afghanistan lists non-formal education, adult education, national literacy campaign and functional literacy, all of which end up with one definition: "the non-traditional education given to adults and out-of-school children composed of teaching the 3Rs, vocational skill development and social awareness." This differs from definitions cited so far in the explicit inclusion of children who are outside of formal schooling. Much more restricted is the meaning employed in neighbouring Pakistan, which is at the other end of the spectrum from New Zealand and Sri Lanka, being limited to adult basic education: "the term adult education in Pakistan is used for education for adults to learn literacy and other vocational occupational skills to which they did not have access and opportunity from the age they could attend school."

Bangladesh, in explaining its pilot project in adult education launched in 1964 and the mass education and literacy campaigns being launched this year, refers in the pilot project to "literacy, numeracy, and knowledge of modern agriculture, health care and nutrition, population control, co-operative societies and economic development and planned family living to out-of-school adults, both male and female, of age group 11–45 years." The mass education programme emphasizes these and other aspects of national development, and is directed at ten million illiterate people aged 15–45. While the scope of objectives and subject-matter is thus wide the target group corresponds to that employed by Unesco in its present (1976) definition of adult education: "persons regarded as adult by the society." Nepal includes within adult education: adult education; non-formal education; life-long education; oral education; agricultural education; and health education.

As in Sri Lanka, so in several other countries, the term non-formal education has tended to displace adult education recently. Among those replying to the survey, Thailand now uses this as the official team, with the replacement of an Adult Education Division by a Non-Formal Education Department in the Ministry; the term non-formal education "covers any experience or activity which has been organized for out-of-school populations with the aim to promote better academic knowledge and skills so that the people can achieve an appropriate standard of living and lead a productive life within the community."

Adult education in countries of the region

The term non-formal education "is now in current use in Indonesia, but there are several terms that have the same meaning. The authority under whom non-formal education activities are administered is the Directorate-General, Out of School Education, Youth and Sports, but the directorate responsible for non-formal education is called community education (*pendidikan masyarakat*). The term adult education is understood but is not usually used." In nearby Papua New Guinea, coming from a different tradition, "the term that adopted a couple of years ago as a result of Government development strategy is non-formal education," understood to embrace all kinds of education of adults.

China also employs a wide understanding in terms of content and purposes, as well as emphasizing the evolution from more specific to wider objectives with the reduction of illiteracy. "In China, adult education is so far defined as worker-peasant education. As the first step (the New China) took measures to make literate those in-service adults who had been deprived of the right to education. Then it went on to impart scientific and technical knowledge to adults with different educational background in order to make them meet the needs of the social and production development . . ." The content of worker-peasant education covers "literacy, know-how and scientific knowledge, and Marxism-Leninism, sociology (including moral education) as well." China thus makes explicit reference to civic and political education, which is included among the objectives in many countries although not always specifically in the definitions (Singapore for example is well known for its civic education campaigns on different aspects of city living).

The Socialist Republic of Viet Nam also identifies the evolving purposes and priority of adult education with an emphasis upon it's reaching back to the birth of the Democratic Republic. Since then "the educational branch for adults, together with education work in general–which at the beginning, was just a movement for liquidation of illiteracy, is now in full swing and becomes an educational branch within a relatively comprehensive system. The term 'adult education', usually called in our country 'complementary education', means enriching knowledge to the degree of general education for those adults (17 or 18-years-old upward) who have jobs in the society, no matter who they are, peasants, handicraftsmen, workers, managers or professional cadres, with a view to creating conditions to increase labour productivity, work and fighting effectiveness in their task of building socialism and defending the Fatherland. . ."

Whereas the emphasis in these cases is on work-oriented and other functional education, including education for national integration and security, some countries with different systems have more diffuse aims, which is reflected also in the less-planned and centrally-directed provision through the Government sector. In the cases of Japan and the Republic of Korea there is also difference over terminology. In the Republic of Korea, adult education is referred to as planned educational activities which are conducted for adults out of school. It is usually called social education. In the Republic of Korea there have been two words such as social education and adult education simultaneously. But the emphasis has been given to social education rather than adult education. . . Social education has covered such educational activities as out-of-school education as well as cultural activities for youth and adults without reference to school education. So it deals with out-of-school youth and adults. Social education in the Republic of Korea has covered *Saemaul* education (*new community* education) the social function of education, air and correspondence programme, agricultural programmes, skill programmes and adult education."

"In Japan, adult education is generally included in social education aimed at adults. In this case 'social education' means 'all systematic educational activities (including physical education and recreation activities) of mainly youth and adults, excluding those of school curricula'. Adult education is divided into two sectors, i.e., formal and non-formal." (This should be distinguished from the other use of 'non-formal' mentioned above, in countries like Papua New Guinea, the Philippines, and Thailand, which includes all of adult education and may include in some countries children's education as well). "As for formal education, there is, for example, the entrance of general adults into graduate schools. As for non-formal adult education, there are those promoted and encouraged by the public sectors and those organized by private institutions . . ." Japan is one of those countries which includes recreational activities explicitly in its definition of adult education or social education, as do other heavily urbanized and industrialized societies.

The explanation of usage in Australia suggests that adult education connotes for many people "the liberal arts tradition" and for others "it means hobby, craft, leisure activities." Non-formal education, where it is used at all, means education beyond the formal system "and particularly the innovative programmes." Continuing education "has been widely adopted by universities, colleges of advanced education and community-sponsored organizations. It may be viewed as a means of updating the older term 'adult education'. It generally refers to non-credit programmes (i.e. no degree or diploma) for a wide range of clients." Other terms mentioned as being in wide use and having specific meanings are community education, recurrent education, further education, and post-secondary education. This last term, like continuing education as it is used in New Zealand, may present an approach to removing the rather artificial dichotomies between credit and non-credit and between vocational and non-vocational education.

Regional diversity and common trends

To some extent countries can be grouped in terms of how they conceive adult education, according to their economic circumstances and their political systems. Some with clearly planned economies, and others with deliberately conceived national development plans, approach adult education in a deliberate way for what it can contribute to national development from a human resource perspective. Such an approach may be discerned in Bangladesh, China, India, Republic of Viet Nam, Sri Lanka and the USSR, among those countries contributing to this survey. At the other extreme are countries such as Australia, Japan and New Zealand, with other mixed economies and political-economic systems sitting somewhat in between. In countries like Malaysia and Singapore the distinction made between adult and vocational education further diffuses the situation.

Another way of grouping member countries in their adult education efforts is in terms of the prominence given to literacy in their adult education programmes, which reflects the level of illiteracy and the degree of concern about it in each country. Countries such as Afghanistan, Bangladesh, Nepal and Pakistan lay heavy stress on literacy, although none equates adult education with literacy, as tended to be common in a number of countries a few years ago. Some countries stress both literacy and other objectives, or suggest that literacy has receded in relative importance in recent times: such mixed situations are found in China, India, Indonesia and Thailand. Less stress still is placed on literacy work in Papua New Guinea, Sri Lanka and other countries where it is thought to be largely eradicated, such as Australia, Japan, New Zealand, the Republic of Korea, the Republic of Viet Nam and the USSR: in some of these countries there is a renewed concern on an increasing scale with adult illiteracy where once it was thought to have been eradicated.

Whereas there are obvious groupings of countries on the kinds of criteria indicated above, this survey indicates that it would be unwise to make assumptions about their approach to and priorities in adult education, because of the dynamic, rapidly changing situation which is found in many places. Diversity becomes evident also when one considers adult education activity taking place outside the direct provision of the Ministry of Education but still within the Government sector.

While adult non-formal education has increasingly been recognized by Governments as a distinctive sector within Ministries of Education, and administrative arrangements made accordingly, adult education activities are also recognized as taking place in or through other Ministries. Ministries of Agriculture, Fisheries, Forestry, Health, Social Welfare and Family Planning are commonly responsible for significant extension work which is administratively quite distinct from the work of the Ministries of Education. Some countries have mechanisms for co-ordination of effort by different Ministries, such as a high-level Council, but the distribution of responsibility for adult education programmes of different kinds among many different agencies makes it difficult to survey the broad adult education field, as well as presenting national planners with a problem. Much of the data surveyed here relates only to the work of Ministries of Education. This seriously under-represents both the need for adult education in the service of development and what is being done by development-oriented Ministries and other agencies in response to that need, and towards national development.

Some questionnaire replies refer only to the work of the Ministry of Education or its relevant department, division, bureau or office. Some countries call attention to the programmes of adult education of different Ministries, such as Agriculture, Health, Welfare and Family Planning in Bangladesh, and Panchayat, Health and Agriculture in Nepal. In the latter the National Mass Literacy Council formulates non-formal education policy and co-ordinates different governmental and non-governmental activities. Sri Lanka also has a co-ordination machinery and acknowledges the role of other Departments, as does Papua New Guinea, which under the decentralized governmental system stresses co-ordination at the provincial level. The Ministry of Planning is described as responsible for co-ordination in Afghanistan, with other Ministries being involved, and India's National Adult Education Programme involves linkages with other Ministries and co-ordination through Advisory Boards of Adult Education. In Indonesia the activities of other Ministries such as Agriculture, Health and Social Affairs are not seen as part of the business of the Directorate of Community Education (*Penmas*), and the Vietnamese response relates only to the work of the Ministry of Education.

Some countries, where there is little or no overall adult education policy, strategy and programme provision from the Ministry of Education, such as Australia, Japan, the Republic of Korea, emphasize however that each Department has its own adult education training programmes, whether as extension or for its own administrative purposes. No doubt in other countries such work would be defined as 'in-house' training and staff development and not thought of as part of adult education related to national development planning.

Rather than a single spectrum along which countries can be ranged for an analysis of their adult education systems (such as least developed to most highly industrialized) a number of intersecting dimensions may be recognized. Countries do tend to group according to their level of industrialization, or proportion of rural compared with urban population, and this approximates but does not precisely match the extent to which illiteracy is a major preoccupation for adult educators and development planners. Different political and economic systems provide another dimension for analysis, which also approximates to but does not fully explain or correspond with different views about responsibility for and management of adult education, and different ideas about co-ordination and the role of the non-government sector.

National development planning

Most countries in the region have a national development plan, and those responsible for adult education appear at least in a general way to be aware of the plan and the responsibilities and procedures in relation to it. It is not always so clear how adult education plans and programmes relate to the different objectives in the development plan, and there appears to be little evidence to suggest that adult education is conceived and used as a support service in relation to development objectives and programmes other than for education itself. If adult education is more directly and effectively to serve development purposes it may be important to ask whether and how it can be more directly integrated into the work of such Ministries as Health, Industry and Agriculture.

Some countries have practised national development planning for many years, while for others it is more recent. The USSR is now in its tenth five-year plan period, and it also employs longer term plans as well as one year plans. The state plan on economic and social development is under the responsibility of the State Planning Commission of the Council of Ministers of the USSR (GOSPLAN). The major task of the present plan is the further elevation of the living standard of the people based on improving the national economy, science and technology. The Socialist Republic of Viet Nam is in the last year of its second five-year plan, and also employs long-term and annual plans. The responsibility rests with the Socialist Republic of Viet Nam State Plan Committee which is under the Government Council.

The Republic of Korea launched its first national development plan in 1964; the fourth such economic development plan, prepared by the

Economic Planning Board, is for the period 1977-1981. In Japan, the Prime Minister's Office is responsible for the Third Comprehensive National Development Plan (ten years from 1977) and the new Economic and Social Seven-Year Plan, 1979-1985. Thailand's present five-year plan, the responsibility of the National, Social and Economic Development Board, ends in 1981. Indonesia's Third Five-Year Plan (Repelita III) runs to 1984; its priority is economic development stressing agricultural self-sufficiency together with industrial development to attain balance in the country's economic structure. "In line with the economic development, political, social, cultural and other development will also be pushed forward in proportion to the progress achieved in the economic sector." According to the Basic Policy of National Development the goal is the development of a wholesome individual and of all Indonesian society.

Afghanistan started its first five year national development plan in 1979. The Ministry of Planning is the responsible body. Bangladesh had a two year plan which commenced in mid-1978 and was prepared by the National Economic Council, the Ministry of Planning, and the different concerned Ministries and Directorates, for instance the Directorate of Technical Education and the Ministry of Education. Nepal's sixth five year plan period started in July 1980; it is prepared by the National Planning Commission and give major priority to agriculture, with substantial priority also to education.

In Pakistan the five-year plan (1978-83) is prepared by the Planning Division in collaboration and consultation with the different concerned Ministries, Divisions and Departments. Sri Lanka's Medium Term Investment Programme spans five-years (1979-83) and is the responsibility of all the sectoral ministries as well as the National Planning Division of the Ministry of Finance and Planning. Its priorities are: full employment; increasing the GNP; improving the quality of life particularly in the rural areas; and reducing pressure on the balance of payments. Papua New Guinea's national development plan, produced by the National Planning Office, gives highest priority to rural development, since the country is predominantly rural.

India also stresses the removal of unemployment and the needs of the poorest sections of the population, together with the "provision by the State of the basic needs including clean drinking water, adult literacy elementary education, health care, rural roads and rural housing. Highest priority has been given to area planning for Integrated Rural Development in which agricultural production and cottage and small-scale industries find a place of importance. Distributive justice is also given priority and it is stated that it is only the vigilance of the poor which will ensure that the benefits of various laws, policies and schemes designed to benefit them will produce their intended effect." India's present medium term plan spans the period 1978-83 and is shaped by the Planning Commission in consultation with the different Ministries.

National planning and adult education

National development planning arrangements have been described in some detail since it is not possible to consider planning for educational development, and the role of adult education in national development and national planning, in a vacuum. As we turn to educational development planning the position becomes less clear in a number of countries. In some cases educational development is clearly linked with other development objectives, while in others the national education plan appears to stand more independently. If there are direct links between educational objectives and national socio-economic development objectives they are not made so explicit. On the whole the links appear most clear and direct in the more rural and less economically developed countries, and least explicit in highly complex, differentiated, industrialized societies.

In Bangladesh education is given a clear priority, second only to agriculture. Great importance is also now assigned to adult education, which is treated as equally important with primary education in the two-year master plan (1978-80) within the National Education Development Plan. This represents a shift in emphasis from higher to basic education for the removal of illiteracy, declared as the second phase of the on-going 'National Revolution for Development'. Afghanistan's national Five Year Education Development Plan started in 1979, also gives highest priority to the eradication of illiteracy, with a starting literacy rate estimated at 5 per cent. "The government of Afghanistan assigns priority to the eradication of illiteracy among its people in the shortest possible time. . . Literacy is recognized as one of the major factors regarding socio-economic progress and people's active participation in the national development of Afghanistan."

India also has an Education Development Plan, although major responsibility for programme preparation and implementation in adult education rests with the State Governments. "Exclusion of a vast majority of the people from the process of education is considered to be the most disturbing aspect of educational and social planning." The emphasis on the predicament of and participation by the poor, and on integrated rural development, explains the significance now accorded to adult education in India's approach to development. Adult education now forms part of the Minimum Needs Programme and there is stress upon agricultural production and cottage and small-scale industries. The Farmer's Functional

Literacy Programme, dating from 1968, supported national socio-economic objectives, "an effort to translate the concept of linking education to development, particularly for increasing production into practice;" that scheme is now incorporated into the National Adult Education Programme, launched in October 1978, which "also strongly supports the country's socio-economic and cultural objectives. It is visualized as a means to bring about a fundamental change in the process of socio-economic development; from a situation in which the poor remain passive spectators at the fringe of the development activity to being enabled to be at its centre, and as active participants."

India thus displays a very clear rationale for adult education as a key component in development planning, with an implied approach or methodology for mobilizing the poor. "From the point of view of social and economic planning the main justification for the National Adult Education Programme is that it can involve in the process of development the vast masses of illiterate and poor people that have remained deprived. That this is possible has been shown by the performance of several projects. It has also been shown that if a proper environment is created, if the organizers of the programme are serious and linkage with development programmes is visible, the inert and illiterate masses respond to the call with simplicity and enthusiasm. . . Education and organization of the poor are that catalytic element which stimulates the process of development aimed at amelioration of the condition of the deprived masses."

The Plans of a number of other countries stress the link between a national educational development plan and socio-economic development. In Sri Lanka "the present policy is aimed at equipping the young school-leaver, and older adults, with the knowledge, skills and attitudes to enable them to make a substantial contribution to national development." "The need for technical/vocational education for the large number of school drop-outs and the dissemination of information and knowledge among adults has been accepted as a matter of policy." This is seen as applying not only through the recently created adult education unit in the Ministry of Education but through agricultural, industrial and other agencies as well. The emphasis in Papua New Guinea, as in India, on rural development, is seen as implying a high priority for adult education for people's effective involvement in the development process, although the policy does not fully commit itself to this in practice. The emphasis in Nepal is upon importing education at grass-roots level, and the Adult Education Programme is intended to contribute to socio-economic improvement.

Thailand's four-year national education plan (1978-81) sets educational priorities to accord with National Development Plan objectives.

This embodies expansion of non-formal education to cover the whole kingdom "for the sake of equality and fairness and to meet popular demand. This type of education should include vocational training and should emphasize the teaching of subjects which are relevant to local needs. . . The State shall endeavour to make education accessible to the poor, the physically, mentally and socially handicapped as well as to the educationally disadvantaged."

Indonesia's educational planning appears to be essentially similar: "the focus. . . is on spreading the equity of educational opportunity of basic education in accordance with compulsory education, providing skill suitable for the environment and improving technical education and professional skill to achieve skilled people as development component." The education plan stresses basic education for all through both primary school and NFE systems, as does that of Bangladesh, with emphasis also upon the 'wholesome individual', a productive and responsible citizen whose full potential is realized, at "the centre of development's efforts." Education is seen as inseparable from science and technology, from social science, from culture and spiritual norms, or from the development of information. Popular participation in development can be mobilized through three channels: apart from formal and non-formal education there are the mass media and traditional folk media, and "the social political channel by means of political education to foster democratic practices and constitutional life, directed towards members of the community as well as cadres of political parties."

The new paradigm of development, as it is sometimes called, appears in these national educational development plans with their stress on popular participation and the needs of the poorest sectors of society. The Indonesian situation calls attention also to political education and participation as a citizen (as distinct from a producer), which appears as a theme in education development purposes elsewhere. Pakistan's adult education programmes "are focused on overall socio-economic development of the country." Specifically for 1980 major socio-economic objectives correlated with adult education activities are: teaching of literacy and numeracy; creation of awareness of different socio-economic problems and development issues; and teaching skills to make the population productive. The National Education Policy envisages nine objectives, the first four of which relate to good membership of and practice within the Pakistani nation and the universal Muslim Ummah; other objectives include full individual development, including different minorities, to participate in overall national effort, and then literacy and productive skills, including a capacity for life-long learning, to ensure a self-reliant and secure national future.

In the Republic of Korea an educational development plan was formally incorporated into national economic development planning from 1967. The educational development plan sub-plan for the 1977–81 plan period lists nine implementation programmes. The eighth of these, replenishing adult or social education, contains ten specific policies within its implementation programme concerning resources, facilities and arrangements for youth and adult training and education.

In China "the people's government always prepares strategies for worker peasant education in light of the national socio-economic development. At present we are striving to achieve the following objectives: in rural areas, to liquidate illiteracy among adolescents in marginal regions within three–five years and to give priority to primary and secondary technical education in regions without illiteracy; in cities, to universalize secondary technical education and to develop higher education in factories, mines and enterprises."

The USSR educational objectives are part of the State Five-Year Plan: "to increase the efficiency of public funds; to improve the working conditions of the working people, making it possible to upgrade the educational and professional background; to elevate the educational and cultural level of the people, to improve their social life and cultural activities; on the basis of industrialization of the agricultural production to reduce the difference in the living conditions of the people of the cities and the people of the rural areas." Again, the relation to socio-economic objectives is clear by implication. The role of adult education is suggested by various Five-Year Plan objectives "to encourage further development and improvement of the education in accordance with the requirements of the modern science and technology, economic, social and cultural development. . . to improve the quality of the in-shop training. To improve the work of the evening vocational schools. . ."

Education, including adult education, "is considered as one of the important factors of the planning" in Japan's National Development Plan. However, "adult education. . . is directed to both the improvement of the overall quality and welfare of the people and the improvement of particular ability/skill of the citizens. All these endeavours will contribute to the development of the society in general. Therefore, it does not support any particular economic, political or social objectives." "It is difficult to pinpoint any of the country's socio-economic, political and cultural objectives which have been strongly supported by adult education programmes." The Socialist Republic of Viet Nam also presents educational development objectives initially in a rather general way, as the opportunity for all to learn in equality. Following the eradication of illiteracy the emphasis for adult education is on enriching the knowledge for the main cadres and for young people outstanding in production and fighting, also preventing relapse into illiteracy and achieving basic education for all working people. The country also emphasizes the important functional role of adult education in the political tasks of liberation and reconstruction.

In Australia and New Zealand, much of the work of adult education may be seen as a response to economic and social needs identified as political priorities, such as retraining and vocationally oriented school-to-work transition programmes in Australia. Recent official reports on ethnic (immigrant) communities and on education and training have highlighted development problems. New Zealand attempted a major Educational Development Conference in 1973/74 with the participation of many thousands of citizens.

It may be seen that in many countries, though not in all, adult education is perceived as having a direct relationship with and part in national development planning. At the level of particular arrangements, however, the linkage is clear and close in some instances, especially where illiteracy is seen as a major obstacle to development, while in other cases the relationship is a more general one. In the latter cases arrangements and modes tend, correspondingly, to be described rather more generally.

Thus in Papua New Guinea it is envisaged that adult education programmes in the 1980s will be geared towards the development of skills for rural development in all spheres. In Afghanistan planning was through the General Agency for Literacy Campaign of the Ministry of Education, which co-ordinated and integrated the plans of each different organization for the approval of the Ministry of Planning. "Socio-economic and socio-cultural measures like land-reform, abolition-of-dowry, enrolment of farmers in co-operative, settlement of nomadic population, promotion of people's languages, etc. are assumed to be closely correlated with large scale adult education. . ."

In Bangladesh adult education is seen as contributing since 1970 to these socio-economic, political and cultural objectives: "creation of self-awareness and self-reliance in adults; to help them develop leadership to identify and solve their personal and social problems together; to develop aesthetical and ethical values in them; to help them develop appropriate attitudes, skills and knowledge for economic development and healthy living. The Five Year Non-Formal Education Scheme and the Mass Education Programme, building on the earlier pilot project, are seen, as well as reducing illiteracy, as developing "attitudes, skills, knowledge and values suitable for healthy living, increased production and economic advancement" during the 1980s.

In the Socialist Republic of Viet Nam, very specific agricultural, industrial, trade and social welfare targets "demand from adult education vigorous development together with the raising of learning quality so as to help improving management and increasing labour productivity." Sri Lanka also refers to specific agricultural and industrial objectives, as well as to enlightening adults regarding their obligations and benefits as "citizens, producers and consumers and creating opportunities for self-awareness, self-reliance, leading to participation in development," through multiagency support under a programme initiated by the Education Ministry. Nepal, reporting high priority to non-formal and adult education within the national education system, has a major thrust towards the rural population literacy as the first target, with other emphasis on social studies, health, agricultural know-how, culture and family planning. The curriculum is designed to yield benefit in working life as well as day-to-day business.

Indonesia, which identifies the rural and urban poor with no education—or who dropped out of the formal system—as the primary target group, has as a strategy for non-formal education under the present Plan: "encouraging each community's potential for providing learning activities; encouraging people to learn in learning groups that use local learning resources; and encouraging educated people to become learning resources to help other people." Here the emphasis is more on the educational methods, and underlying philosophy, to contribute to development objectives than on direct articulation with other development programmes. Thailand similarly lists various media and methods to be employed, including co-ordination of effort of different agencies and mobilization of community resources, and Japan nominates as the general priorities of adult education: "to provide various learning opportunities in response to the learning needs of every life-stage of the people; to promote the usage of audio-visual aids and systematic development of educational facilities; and to expand and develop leaders in the field of adult education."

New Zealand mentions no specific arrangements for integrated adult education programmes within a national development plan, but lists a number of voluntary and statutory bodies which contribute in different ways, such as the Vocational Training Council's some 26 Industry Training Boards (similar to those found in Australia), the National Council of Adult Education, the Queen Elizabeth II Arts Council, the Department of Maori Affairs, and others.

Adult education and the total education system

One important question concerns the relation between adult education and the formal education or school system. Sometimes there is reference to both a formal and a non-formal system; or, alternatively, to a formal system to which adult, non-formal education provides educational alternatives. These may be conceived as in some way rival to the formal system (even as a rival 'system'), or as more flexible and experimental alternatives which might facilitate diversification of formal education, or as a temporary expedient substituting for formal education until the latter can be extended to every group and sector of the population. Rather than thinking of the formal system and a non-formal alternative system it is desirable to think of a total education system or the totality of educational provision, within which different modes and approaches are found.

Different Asian countries have different administrative arrangements and see adult (or non-formal) education as more or less separate or integrated. In Nepal "adult education has been conceived and organized separately through an Adult Education Division." Pakistan organizes adult education separately, but the physical facilities of the formal education system are used. Generally in the Republic of Korea "adult or social education programmes are organized separately from the formal education in the field of voluntary organization for social education (such as YMCA, YWCA, 4H Club, boy and girl scout, Red Cross for Youth, adult classroom)." Papua New Guinea has a Non-Formal Education Section in the Department of Education, and attempts are made to open up its Vocational Centres to the community, as also the institutions of formal education; the trend seems to be towards greater interaction between non-formal education and the school system.

Likewise Thailand has a separate Non-Formal Education Department: "however the linkage between the Department of NFE and other related institutions has been established to co-ordinate in the fields of personnel, curriculum, monitoring, and evaluation." Indonesia also has administrative separation with a distinct directorate but in the village formal and non-formal education activities "have close mutual co-operation. For example a school teacher might act as a tutor, a classroom might be used for non-formal education." And in Japan, following the 1949 Social Education Law, the Ministry of Education, Science and Culture has undertaken the advancement of measures for encouraging the various types of social education services.

Thus in many countries adult, social or non-formal education is part of the responsibility of the Ministry of Education, though with a separate unit or directorate for implementation. In some cases the integration into a total education system is much more complete. Worker-peasant education is a component of national education in China; "as a continuation and a complement to the formal school education, its task is to impart knowledge to workers and peasants and to train specialists. The governments and departments at all levels always keep in mind the potentialities of adult education when they work out overall strategies of school education. They also make relevant worker-peasant education plans to reinforce formal education. . ."

In the Socialist Republic of Viet Nam adult education is "not separated from formal education" but is "part and parcel in all fields." Thus adult education is planned along with kindergartens, maternity classes, and general and specialized education in long-term State planning; it is under the centralized management of the Education Ministry, provincial and city education services, and district and village education committees; the curriculum content is based on that of general education but adjusted to conform to the needs of adult learners; the staffing, and some of the buildings, of adult education is as for the regular school system.

In the USSR there is a "diversified system of education," one important element of which is adult education. Sri Lanka sees general formal education as "fundamental to the whole education system" and remaining so for the foreseeable future: "but the need for non-formal education has been realized in view of the incapacity of the formal system to make an effective impact on development." Adult education "is based on the utilization of the resources of the formal system," which reflects in planning, administration, content, teaching personnel, funds and buildings. And in neighbouring India "universalization of elementary education and of adult literacy are considered mutually inter-dependent," but adult education "at present is conceived and organized separately": the NAEP contains provision for separate infrastructure determined and formulated apart from the formal system.

India, Philippines, Sri Lanka and Thailand are among countries in which in recent years adult (or non-formal) education has received significant impetus which reflects in new planning and implementing arrangements. In Afghanistan and Bangladesh also, as in Pakistan, new machineries and Plan allocations reflect a heightened awareness of the role of adult education in national development, and have heralded increased resource allocation to this area. In New Zealand (as in several similar Western countries) "the non-vocational aspects of adult education. . . has generally been regarded as a low priority and has not been well resourced," although concern with economic and technological change and resulting unemployment has led to increased resource allocation to vocational retraining. "Any changes in financial allocations for adult education over the past decade have been the result of academic and social concerns. These concerns include: questioning of the tendency of secondary schools to prepare students for either academic study or employment, unemployment especially of school-leavers, and women re-entering the work force and needing retraining. For educational reasons as well as financial ones, the policy has been that programmes should be local and regional where possible, utilizing community financial and personnel resources, with central government providing co-ordination, financial support, back-up services, but as little direct control as possible."

In Japan it was suggested by the Social Education Council as early as 1971 that rapid social change implied new needs for adult education: "since social conditions have undergone changes as the result of the progress of industrialization and internationalization of society, the birth of an information-intensive society, the increase of the population in the upper age brackets, the concentration of population in urban areas, the increase in the proportion of nuclear families, the elevation of the level of the nation's educational career and so forth, there is a greater necessity for studying what social education should be like in the future."

Allocations for adult education within education budgets

There is thus a somewhat different rationale for enhancing the role and status of adult education in the more industrialized (and post-industrial) societies than in the predominantly rural and less literate societies, although each derives from the need for national social and economic development in one form or another. In some countries there has already been a political and planning response to perceived need for adult education in development; in others the position is that adult educators and perhaps other social planners are advancing a case which has not yet had practical effect in terms of policy and resource allocation.

It is not always possible to know what resources are being allocated to adult education in member countries, although the trend in each country is more easily discernible. There are different views from country to country as to how adult education will fare in the 1980s: in some countries there is no doubt that financial allocations will further increase; in others there is more uncertainty.

Again, care must be exercised in quoting what countries define as financial allocations to adult education, because of the different scope of this term. Also allocation from within government expenditure, or as a proportion of the Ministry of Education budget, is not the same as total expenditure from all sources on all forms of adult education in the country. With these reservations, the following are data about financial resources and trends in the different countries.

In China, the proportion of the education budget allocated to peasant education at one stage was as high as 3.8 per cent, but recently it has been around one per cent, this money being used for full-time teacher wages, spare-time teacher allowances, and textbooks. It is noted that this represents only a small part of the total expenditure on adult education within China because of contributions from other sources such as workers, peasants and enterprises. In Papua New Guinea figures are not accessible except that in 1976–77, 0.03 per cent of the education budget went to adult education, and the position has not improved since then. The 1980s are seen as a period of great potential but it remains to be seen if this will be realized.

Sri Lanka has seen an eight-fold increase in the allocation to adult education, from the miniscule 250,000 rupees of 1975 to 2,175,000 of 1979, but this is still estimated as only 0.12 per cent of the total education budget (which is about 25 per cent of all government expenditure); "like a drop in the ocean when compared with the total expenditure on formal education." About 0.1 per cent of the Nepalese Ministry of Education budget is for adult education; it is pointed out that the Ministries of Health, Agriculture and *Panchayat* also have adult education budgets which are separate and additional.

Separate figures are not available for adult education through other ministries. In the Republic of Korea "unfortunately it is impossible to estimate total government expenditure for adult education, because each ministry of government has its own educational training programmes with regard to adult education." Expenditure on social education has been approximately .8 per cent, .96 per cent, and .43 per cent of the total budget of the Ministry of Education in 1977, 1978 and 1979 respectively.

In New Zealand, while continuing education attracted between 30 and 32 per cent of the total education budget from 1975 to 1980, it must be remembered that this includes all post-secondary education, formal and non-formal. It does not prove possible to provide figures for adult education outside of the formal credentialling, system. The USSR returns similar proportions, (approximately one third in most years,) on the same categorization, noting also that this sector has increased considerably since 1970. Expenditure at evening schools and institutes and education by correspondence amounts to a little below 2 per cent of expenditure on formal education. Japan expects an increase in adult (social) education programmes and budgets during the 1980s as a result of the demands generated by rapid social, economic and technological change. There has been little change since 1970. In 1977 the Ministry of Education, Science and Culture allocated about 208 million US dollars to social education, or 1.49 per cent of the total education budget, while local authorities allocated $2,253 million, or 5.8 per cent of the total local education budget. Expenditure by other departments and sectors is not known.

Indonesia has difficulty in giving estimates for non-formal education because much of this is carried within the budgets of different Ministries. No exact total government figures can be provided, but the Directorate of Community Education budget grew during the Second Five-Year Plan from 235 million Rupiahs in 1974/75 to 2,870 million Rupiahs in 1978/79. This rises to 4,191 million and 10,471 million over the next two years. Despite these dramatic increases the Penmas budget in 1979/80 was still less than 3 per cent of the total Ministry of Education and Culture budget.

Adult education in Thailand has also significantly increased its government budget over the past decade, and expects to see the position further strengthened during the 1980s, with the further strengthening of emphasis on non-formal education in the 1982-86 Plan period. In 1970 .32 per cent of government education funds went to adult education, rising to .85 per cent by 1974 and .96 per cent in 1979. Adult (non-formal) education rose from 59 to 171 million baht from 1974 to 1979 while the total education budget moved from 7,023 to 17,786 million baht in national budgets totalling 39,026 and 92,000 million baht respectively. (The Ministry's own budget was smaller than the education budget since it did not at that time include primary education; it moved from 2,439 to 6,233 million baht).

Over four years the allocation to adult education through the General Agency for Literacy Campaign in Afghanistan rose from 2 per cent to 6 per cent of the total recurrent budget for formal education (1976 compared with 1979), or from 25, 27, and 29 to 115 million Afghanis. In Bangladesh in the 1973-78 Plan period a total of 400 million Taka was allocated for all kinds of adult education through different ministries, directorates and departments, an estimated 12.5 per cent of all educational expenditure, but the actual Education Department expenditure on adult education from 1975/76 to 1979/80 totalled 43.8 million Taka or 1.36 per cent of total educational expenditure at all levels. For the second Five-Year Plan period, 1980/81 to 1984/85, of a total allocation of 9,870 million Taka for education 4.66 per cent (460 million) is allocated to non-formal education. It is intended to match this with some 500 million from external sources for the mass education programme. It is reported that as much was spent on the mass education programme in only six months in 1980 as was allocated for the five years of the first Plan period. Finally in India the allocations to adult education have increased from 48.1 million Rupees, or .19 per cent of all educational expenditure, in

1977/78, to 240.7 million, or .85 per cent, in 1979/80. The allocation in the draft Sixth Plan (1978-83) of 2,000 million rupees compares with 83 million in the Fourth Plan (1969-74) and 180 million in the Fifth—a tenfold increase, allowing for inflation, in the significance of adult education within total Plan budgets. A substantial increase in allocations is expected for the 1980s with the launching of the NAEP.

In summary, there is a general trend towards significantly enhancing the position and budget of adult education within the formal government education sector. While this expansion is often from a tiny base, and still represents only one per cent or less of the total education budget (unless one includes all post-secondary education in the calculation), it marks a dramatic expansion for some national adult education enterprises.

Planning, programmes and co-ordination

Machinery. Countries within the region differ significantly one from another with respect to the governmental machinery which has been established for the organization, co-ordination and implementation of adult education policies and plans. The structures established by Government within the broad field of adult education reflect in large measure the economic and political systems of the different countries.

In some countries, adult education is seen as being largely the concern and responsibility of the non-government sector, and there is no government department or government machinery directly charged with determining policies, or organizing and implementing adult education. In Australia for example, no government department at the national level is specifically charged with overseeing the adult education sector. At the State level, however, some governments have recognized adult education as a distinct sector and make some direct provision. In general, however, adult education is provided by large numbers of voluntary and statutory bodies, with little formal co-ordination of their activities.

New Zealand, with a socio-political system similar to Australia's, likewise emphasizes the role of the private sector in adult education. However, the Ministry of Education has appointed one senior officer charged with policy-making in the broad field of continuing education, and the Government has also set up a quasi-governmental statutory council responsible for co-ordination and for providing some support services.

In Japan, there is increasing recognition of the importance of social education, and the Ministry of Education, Science and Culture has taken new initiatives in this area without at the same time recognizing it through the creation of special machinery. The role of government is seen as principally promoting work in the private sector, or itself organizing adult education in those areas where the private sector is not expected to make adequate provision. Other Ministries such as Labour, and Agriculture and Forestry, also assume responsibility for in-service training and adult education as part of their own administrative services. In the Republic of Korea, similarly, each Ministry has its own adult education and training programmes. In general, however, the role of government is not significant, most adult or social education programmes being organized separately by voluntary organizations, industrial enterprises, and agricultural enterprises. While the Ministry of Education in the Republic of Korea makes some provision for adult education, distinct from formal education, its growing role in this field has not yet been recognized in the form of establishing a distinct adult education department or other body.

A second group of countries which share common socio-political systems, where the State plays a key role in central planning, are those where adult education is conceived as an integral part of the total education system. In these countries adult education is not differentiated out as a separate component of the education sector to be organized and co-ordinated apart from other forms of education. While there is general recognition of the desirability of separate curricula relevant to the interests and needs of adults, and also for teaching methods appropriate to adult as distinct from child learning, the formal and non-formal education systems are otherwise integrated.

In China, worker-peasant education is a component of national education, being seen as both a continuation of and a complement to the formal school system. All governments and all departments keep in mind the potentialities of adult education at all levels when they work out overall strategies of school education. To facilitate the implementation of worker-peasant education plans, organs have been set up in governmental educational institutions at all levels. In addition to the responsibilities of the Government Departments of Education, non-governmental organizations also play an important part.

In the Socialist Republic of Viet Nam, adult education is likewise an integral component of national education, although a Department of Complementary Education responsible for this work has been established in the Education Ministry. At the provincial and city levels the Education Service also has a section responsible for complementary education. However, complementary or adult education is planned in conjunction with other education sections from kindergartens through to universities and professional schools, and the curricula are based on general education although adjusted so as to conform with the needs, capacities, psychology, health and time constraints of adult learners.

In the USSR, adult education is regarded as part of the whole education system, organized through the system of government and public educational institutions. This accords with the view of adult education in the Soviet Union as education of adult members of society who need extension of their professional or general education. Thus evening secondary schools making provision for adult learners have the same educational programmes as general secondary schools for children, the only difference being that the life and working experience of the adults is drawn upon widely.

The third and largest group of countries comprises those where adult education is increasingly being conceived and organized as a separate administrative responsibility within the Ministry of Education, with various degrees of relationship to the formal education sector. There are further differences within this grouping on the extent to which the adult/non-formal education department or centre co-ordinates the activities of other functional departments engaged in providing adult education. At one extreme are located those countries where the role of a distinct adult education department or body is essentially to co-ordinate activities of all agencies, public and private, providing adult education; at the other are those countries where the adult/non-formal education department assumes major responsibility for offering adult education. Afghanistan, Bangladesh, India and to some extent Pakistan are countries where massive national adult education programmes have recently been launched, and where an attempt is made to mobilize and co-ordinate all agencies, government, voluntary, private and public sector industry.

The Indian National Adult Education Programme (NAEP) reflects governmental recognition of the central role of adult education in national planning for development. India's NAEP is under the Directorate of Adult Education in the Ministry of Education. The activities and programmes of other functional Departments are integrated into the Programme as part of a national developmental approach. Thus the Ministry of Health and Family Welfare has closely linked its health care and family planning with the NAEP through utilization of community health volunteers and adult education instructors wherever possible and by utilizing adult education centres for discussion regarding problems of health care and family planning. The Ministry of Labour has enlarged the work of the Central Board of Workers to extend support to the NAEP by organizing staff of adult education centres through worker-teachers and by re-orienting staff of the 40 Regional Directorates so that they may be able to provide technical support to industries, mines and plantations. The various programmes of the Ministry of Agriculture (including Farm Information Unit and Farmers'

Training) as well as of the Ministry of Rural Reconstruction (scheme of training of rural youth in self-employment) have been linked with NAEP.

Afghanistan launched a national plan of literacy campaign in 1979 as a key element in its first five-year development plan. The General Agency for Literacy Campaign (GALC) is located within the Ministry of Education and is responsible for co-ordination and integration of the plans and programmes of different ministries, national agencies and organizations.

In Bangladesh, adult education is planned and partially administered in conjunction with formal education, although there are plans to establish a separate Directorate of Adult Education in the near future. Bangladesh has also set up a high-powered National Mass Literacy Council to formulate policy guidelines for mass literacy and to co-ordinate the activities of various ministries and non-governmental organizations in this respect. The Council, chaired by the Vice-President of the country, is composed of 13 Ministers, including the Prime Minister; the Education Secretary is the Secretary of the Council. In areas other than (functional) literacy there is no co-ordination, and different national development departments like Agriculture, Co-operative, Social Welfare, Health and Family Planning have their own individual programmes to train field-level workers and change-agents.

Pakistan has recently set up a National Adult Education Centre in the Ministry of Education. Primarily a co-ordinating body, its functions are, among others: to organize surveys and studies on problems of adult literacy/education; to assist in the formulation of national policies and plans for the development of adult literacy/education; to co-ordinate adult literacy/education programmes and activities of different agencies and regions; to secure financial assistance from the Government as well as foreign aid-giving agencies for the development of adult literacy/education; to prepare and publish instructional material pertaining to adult literacy/education for use by various agencies engaged in adult literacy/education programmes; to support professional development of adult educators through pre-service and in-service education programmes within the country and abroad; to organize seminars/conferences/discussions/forums on different aspects of adult literacy/education; and to serve as the Secretariat of the National Adult Education Council. In Nepal, a National Council for Social Service co-ordination embraces all social services and has adult education responsibilities.

In contrast to those above are countries which have established separate departments of adult/non-formal education which are themselves major providers of adult education programmes. Thailand has a Department of Non-Formal Education in the Ministry of Education which not only co-ordinates various governmental and private institutions offering non-formal education but also formulates and implements various plans and projects to meet local needs. This Department has been officially established to take care of adult education, with authority and responsibility in planning, administration, content areas, staff and funds.

Linkage between the Department and other related institutions has been established to co-ordinate in the fields of personnel, curriculum, methodology, monitoring, and evaluation. The Directorate of Community Education (*Penmas*) in the Directorate General of Out of School Education, Youth and Sports of the Ministry of Education and Culture in Indonesia plays a similar role to the Thai Department. It is directly responsible for organizing courses, developing policies and providing financial assistance. Non-government organizations and agencies also help the activities of the Directorate by organizing courses and a special staff in the Directorate is responsible for planning and facilitating the development of these organizations, with the Directorate contributing to the development of methods and materials. Other non-formal education activities are carried out separately by other Government Departments.

Sri Lanka has a mixed system, reflecting its recent reliance on the non-governmental sector for adult education. During the past five years government involvement in adult education for persons of all ages, particularly the young school-leavers and drop-outs, has gradually expanded. A Unit on Non-Formal Education has been set up in the Education Ministry to plan and organize adult/non-formal education on a national scale, including co-ordination of the activities of different Departments such as agricultural extension, industrial training, health, education, and integrated rural development. The Non-Formal Education Unit itself arranges programmes for adult education, based on utilization of the resources of the formal system. Content, teaching facilities, funding and buildings are common to formal and non-formal education, while planning and administration are by a separate unit of the same Ministry, comprising officers and teachers drawn from the formal system. A National Council of Non-Formal Education was formed on the initiative of the Ministry of Education in 1979.

In Papua New Guinea, the National Council of Village Development was established in 1979 under the Prime Minister's Department to co-ordinate development of adult education in the country since provinces now have the power to determine their own policies in adult education. The Department of Education has what is now known as a Non-Formal Education Section which includes adult education and vocational centres.

Participation and decentralization

A major objective of several current educational reforms and national programmes is to secure community participation and involvement in the national endeavour. The *Final Report* of the Fourth Regional Conference of Ministers of Education and Those Responsible for Economic Planning in Asia and Oceania, held in Sri Lanka in 1978, notes: "clearly the decentralization of educational administration is an important prerequisite of any strategy which aims at massive mobilization of people's participation in education. Moreover such enhanced participation of local communities may well hold the key to restoring education to its rightful place in community life where it will contribute to and be inspired by the people themselves."

The importance of participation as a key to motivation and subsequent application is recognized as a key to adult learning in much of the literature of adult education. Adult education which involves, motivates and energizes those who are apathetic and fatalistic also appears to be a key component in the newer approaches to development which emphasize the social and human as well as economic objectives and indicators.

Participation tends to imply decentralization and localization of adult education planning, programming, implementation and evaluation, with stress upon local content and materials which are familiar and relevant to the needs of learners. This presents something of a quandary for adult education planners who are striving to meet national objectives and to integrate adult education efforts into those of the national development plan. Whereas decentralization may appear as a prerequisite to the professional adult educator who recognizes the importance of participation and so of decentralization to meet diverse local needs, central direction and control may be demanded by national planning considerations if not also for reasons of national integration and security.

From the review of machinery for planning, co-ordination and provision of adult education, it is apparent that there is wide variation between countries in the extent to which these various functions are centralized at the national level, or decentralized to State, provincial, district and local levels. Decentralization is perhaps most developed in those countries relying heavily on the voluntary or non-governmental sector, with the attendant risk that provision may be unco-ordinated and unrelated to national goals.

The National Adult Education Programme in India is perhaps unique in that, while being a national mass programme, it is nonetheless strongly grounded in a philosophy of decentralization and broad-based community involvement and participation. Thus machinery has been created at national, State, district and field levels to facilitate a two-way process of planning, resource development, curriculum and materials development, training and the learning process.

Papua New Guinea also stresses decentralization and a community-based approach to adult education. "In approaching non-formal education programmes, we look at the total community and as much as possible we try to encourage community atmosphere rather than an elitist approach. . ."

Thailand is moving progressively towards a decentralized government approach to non-formal education. During the period 1977-81, 24 provincial Life-long Educational Centres (LECs) and four Regional Centres (RCs) are being created. The rationale for this development includes: the lack of NFE personnel, the lack of administrative unity and co-ordination at provincial level, the need for decentralization of NFE programming and operations, and the limited NFE service in rural areas. LEC functions include administration, co-ordination and promotion; RC programmes include research, curriculum and materials development, programme development, training, development of teaching aids, radio correspondence work and publications, experimentation in innovative techniques, and community service.

Indonesia also strives, through *Penmas*, to secure localization of adult education activity. For grass-roots-level co-ordination a village social institution (LSD) has been established in each village, with a view to helping people to solve their problems and fulfil their needs. The training of the field-level worker, or *Penilik*, emphasizes the field setting and the particular experience of the local officer rather than a generalized national curriculum based on classroom lectures.

While various countries stress the desirability of decentralization and participation to reach special disadvantaged groups, such as women, the landless, and different minorities, it is difficult to provide statistical data as to how many and which groups of adults actually participate in adult education. Estimates by both the USSR and New Zealand suggest that about one-third of the population take part in some kind of broadly-defined adult education each year. New Zealand notes the common tendency for the educationally and socially more advantaged to make greatest use of and derive most benefit from adult education and the need, therefore, to make special efforts to reach the various disadvantaged groups.

The clearest sense of purpose in relation to target groups and numbers comes from those predominantly rural societies where illiteracy is a major concern and where new efforts are being made to reach the most disadvantaged and remote rural populations. Thus Afghanistan, Bangladesh, China, India, Indonesia, the Socialist Republic of Viet Nam and Thailand can give quite definite participation or target participation numbers for their main government-originated adult education for development programmes.

Priorities and target groups

Those countries which have established separate machinery for adult education and assign it a major role in national planning also see its main thrust as being directed towards the educationally, socially and economically deprived sectors of the community. In many instances this corresponds to the rural population. Conversely, in countries such as Australia where adult education is largely a non-governmental activity unrelated to any national development plan, adult education tends not to be oriented towards any identifiable sector of the community apart from special programmes.

India's NAEP is specifically directed towards the most economically and socially deprived sectors of the society, living predominantly in rural areas. Specific target groups identified for attention include women, scheduled castes and tribes, and some programmes are also designed for workers in urban and industrial areas. In Indonesia the Directorate of Community Education has established as its highest priorities: people who never went to school, illiterates and drop-outs; those who are unemployed or intermittently employed; and those in poor health and undernourished by the age of 20-24 years. New Zealand's quasi-governmental body responsible for overall co-ordination of adult education—the National Council for Adult Education—has as its major task the provision of educational opportunities for the educationally disadvantaged.

Several other countries place most emphasis on adult education for the rural sector which is the largest part of the population, although special consideration may also be given to urban groups. Thailand, for example, estimates that 80 per cent of non-formal education is directed towards the rural population, the remaining 20 per cent being focused on the urban poor and educationally disadvantaged. The purpose of adult education is similar in Sri Lanka where a similar proportion of effort is directed towards the rural areas; in Papua New Guinea and Pakistan rural groups are also identified as the principal target, but not to the exclusion of the particular needs of urban groups, especially those who are unemployed or under-employed.

Bangladesh likewise directs its adult education programmes towards both urban and rural populations, with special emphasis on rural population workers and labourers engaged in different productive sectors located in urban areas. Beneficiaries in Nepal are the people of village and remote areas, learning especially after the harvesting season in the evening. While some 40 per cent of non-school-going persons join the classes, the retention rate is low. By contrast, adult education in China, Socialist Republic of Viet Nam and the USSR is conceived as being part of total educational provision available to all adults in society.

Adult education programmes

The variety of adult education offered in different Member States is immense, with diverse arrays of programmes within many countries in both the public and the private sectors. The data provided here form only a guide to the major programme areas rather than a comprehensive catalogue. It is likely that some provision is made in all the programme areas identified below in each of the countries. For instance, while acquisition of literacy skills is a major preoccupation in Afghanistan, Bangladesh and India, the industrialized nations—which had supposedly eliminated illiteracy—are also now developing literacy programmes.

Some descriptions of programmes are in terms of content; others are in terms of objectives and call attention to the different motivations of students. This suggests alternative ways of categorizing adult education programmes. The reply from New Zealand, for instance, notes strong resistance in that country to the vocational/non-vocational dichotomy which has been adopted for administrative convenience. In countries where social education or adult education for leisure is a major programme area, a substantial number of students enrol in such courses with the purpose of improving their vocational skills and job prospects.

The eradication of illiteracy, perceived as a major obstacle to development, is a preoccupation for several countries. The acquisition of literacy skills therefore appears as a major programme area for several countries. Afghanistan, Bangladesh, China, India, Indonesia, Nepal, Pakistan, the Socialist Republic of Viet Nam and Thailand make provision for literacy.

In Bangladesh, emphasis is laid on the development of functional literacy with knowledge of modern agriculture, health care, family care and other aspects of national development. The overall objective is to provide each citizen of the country with minimum fundamental education within the shortest possible time so that they might contribute to meeting the needs of the country.

In India, adult education is "looked upon as a method of human resource development, including literacy, functional development and creation of awareness among the poor regarding their inherent power to determine their destinies. In a new development process, adult education is considered to be a method which can contribute to the new development strategy in three ways: first, by making a substantial part of the workforce literate and better skilled; second, by involvement of people in various development programmes which would make it possible to achieve optimum potential and minimize waste; third, by creation of awareness among the poor regarding the laws and policies of Government whereby it would be possible to implement the strategy of redistributive justice." The range of types of programmes which might be organized in the NAEP approach to acquisition of literacy skills includes: literacy with assured follow-up, conventional functional literacy, functional literacy supportive of a dominant development programme, literacy with learning-cum-action groups, and literacy for conscientization and formation of organizations of the poor.

Thailand's functional literacy programme also goes beyond simply providing adults with literacy skills. Its two other principal objectives are to raise awareness among the public of civic duties in the democratic society and to equip them with basic vocational skills which are needed for living; and second, to promote the *'Khit pen—Tam pen'* concept to enable people to know how to think creatively and solve problems effectively.

In some countries which are successfully eradicating illiteracy, a major effort through adult education programmes is towards extending elementary basic education to all citizens and providing neo-literates with opportunities to maintain their literacy skills and acquire new skills and knowledge. The Department of Non-Formal Education in Thailand mounts a general adult education programme, organized to meet the needs of those who missed initial formal schooling and secondary education. In the Socialist Republic of Viet Nam, one programmatic area of complementary education is directed towards provision of first-grade compulsory education among working people, first and foremost among youth.

A third major element of the adult education effort is towards the development of productive skills in relation to small-scale industry, whether through self-employment or as wage earners. Such programmes are vocationally-oriented, often with associated objectives of fostering self-reliance, building up self-awareness and knowledge of the environment, and contributing to a better and more healthy life. In some countries, for example Papua New Guinea and Thailand, such programmes are aimed towards the unemployed or under-employed.

Productive skills training is a significant component of adult education programmes in Bangladesh, India, Indonesia, Nepal, Papua New

Guinea, the Socialist Republic of Viet Nam and Thailand. Examples of such courses in Thailand include: chicken raising, grafting and budding, fish farming and mushroom farming in the agricultural sector; small-engine mechanics, welding, pottery and leather-craft in the industrial arts; and typing, accounting, foreign languages and secretarial arts as part of business.

The improvement and extension of technical skills to a wider section of the public emerges as another major programme area. Most countries make provision for urban workers, even countries where the rural population is the priority focus for adult education. In the more industrialized nations, technical education is accorded more importance than basic education and becomes the focus of nation-wide programmes to extend technical skills to all adults. The socialist countries make strong provision here: the USSR, for example, has among major objectives of the Tenth Five-Year Plan to double enrolment in the technical and vocational schools, and to prepare through the system of technical and vocational education more than 11 million skilled workers; to prepare 9.6 million specialists through higher education and specialists at the technician level, paying special attention to supplying the industrial regions with skilled manpower.

One of China's objectives is to universalize secondary technical education and to develop higher education in factories, mines and enterprises. Although the Socialist Republic of Viet Nam explicitly excludes vocational training from its formal definition of adult (complementary) education, its response nonetheless implies that complementary education is also concerned in a substantial way with the widescale development among workers and peasants of technical skills: "complementary education learners in our country have conditions to combine study with practice, connect school activities to social activities; and essentially associate study with production labour, work and fighting. For example, rural learners apply mathematics to the elaboration of production plans, the planning of fields and transport, chemistry to soil investigation, and biology and techniques for better productivity of cultivation and animal breeding. Learners in factories use physics for technical innovations and tool improvement. Others apply acquired knowledge in management reform."

Australia, Japan, New Zealand and the Republic of Korea are industrialized countries in which the need to maintain a productive, technically skilled work-force is paramount. Unlike the socialist countries, however, vocational and technical training is not normally considered part of adult education except in a more limited sense of retraining or extending initial training in vocational schools and technical institutes. In the Republic of Korea, retraining is beginning to assume significance as a major programme area with the rapid advances and resulting obsolescences in technology. Japan similarly notes that one strand of its social education provision is education for the improvement of vocational knowledge and technique. In Australia, as in the Republic of Korea, updating in technical skills, largely undertaken in the formal education sector or by enterprises themselves, is looming large as a major programme area of the future.

Analysis of the scope and meaning attached to adult education by Member States has shown that countries characterized by high industrialization also tend to equate adult education at least in part with education for leisure. Australia, Japan, New Zealand and the Republic of Korea all make provision for hobby, recreation and personal growth activities, with the prediction that this programme area will expand even further in the future through reduced working hours and more importance attached to leisure pursuits. Of the six content areas in social education identified by Japan, four relate to education for leisure or social living arrangements: education for the improvement and development of liberal arts and general morale; education for physical education and sport; education for the development of family life; and education for the promotion of citizen's consciousness and social friendship.

The Republic of Korea also notes that reduced working hours made possible by a significant increase in productivity will lead to better utilization of leisure time, providing a challenge for adult (social) education.

Other programme areas in adult education do not appear to be common to many countries. One, adult education for community development and leadership training, is probably more common among countries in the region than the replies suggest. Thailand's Non-Formal Education Department organizes a provincial programme to train adults and youth: youth training for young farmers so that they might become good leaders in community development; and training of leaders of village newspaper reading centres to teach them how to organize reading centres in their own village so as to be able to manage the centres themselves.

In Sri Lanka it is the voluntary sector through the Sarvodaya Movement which provides leadership training and promotes a range of community development activities. The Islamic countries also emphasize the provision that exists for religious training. In Bangladesh this takes the form of a programme of training for religious leaders, while in Indonesia opportunities exist for students to study and learn how to live according to Muslim norms.

In many countries civic education is stressed. The USSR, for example, considers "a political and ideological education as one of the most important parts of education at all the levels of education." China indicates that the content of worker-peasant education includes Marxism-Leninism sociology (including proletarian moral education) as well. In a different cultural tradition Thailand's non-formal education–through its broadcasting media–aims to influence Thais to be good citizens, to promote understanding of the democratic system with the King as head of State, and to cultivate respect and affection for the institutions of the nation, the religion and the King.

While most adult education reported here is through the education sector or by voluntary agencies concerned with adult education, some references are also made to programmes provided by other government departments. In some countries these are incorporated into integrated rural development programmes, as in Bangladesh, where an attempt is made to relate adult education directly to the development process. For most countries, however, health and welfare, family planning, and agricultural extension programmes provided by the separate functional departments are not included in responses to this survey. India does make reference, however, to provision of training by the adult education sector for functionaries of other departments in the organization of adult education and skill development.

Sources of finance

The proportion of national education budgets allocated to adult education, was discussed earlier in which it was noted that the information on budgetary allocation was incomplete because, in most countries, funds were allocated to adult education also through other ministries, or drawn from the voluntary sector, from learner contributions or elsewhere. Some further information is available in some instances about other sources of funds, and also about the kinds of support available to adult learners of a financial or other kind.

In a few countries the position appears to be fairly clear. In Afghanistan "having a centralized system of administration, with the exception of some voluntary services and financial contribution, the entire expenditure is borne by central government." In Japan by contrast, quite apart from non-governmental contributions, more than ten times the central government contribution comes from local government sources. Bangladesh also asserts that "the national expenditure on adult education comes from the Ministry of Education, Government of Bangladesh"; again, one must recognize that this implies a certain meaning and scope to what is being included in the term, since efforts facilitating adult learning for development are also made through other governmental and non-governmental channels.

Several other countries are simply unable to provide data on this subject, recognizing that many agencies allocate resources to adult education, either publicly available or for their own personnel. In the Socialist Republic of Viet Nam, apart from state financial resources, adult education is supported from factory and co-operative welfare funds for complementary education courses, from learners' monthly fees and from individuals' contributions. China states that "part of the finance for workers' education comes from the workers' union whose expenditure is allocated by the enterprise's administration. If this is not enough, the enterprise may provide further funds. In the countryside, peasants are responsible for their own education in financial terms; the Government only provides subsidy on a selective basis."

In the USSR, funds come from "the State, co-operatives, trade unions, and other public enterprises and organizations as well as collective farms. Industrial establishments also provide considerable amounts for adult education. . . According to the calculations made by the Soviet economists, funds from the industrial establishments and collective farms being spent on adult education through the system of evening schools are two times higher than those from the State budget."

In India "most of the expenditure. . . is funded by the central and state Governments. Voluntary agencies assisted by the Government are required to contribute 25 per cent towards administrative costs. Estimates on contributions by other agencies have not been made but the amounts would be small." In the Republic of Korea "social education programmes have been managed by such several institutions as government, voluntary organizations, industrial enterprises, agriculture and others. It is difficult, however, to find out the magnitude of the expenditure which was paid by each organization on adult education programmes except the Ministry of Education."

In New Zealand also the amount cannot be accurately determined, though it is suggested that perhaps 90 per cent of national adult education expenditure comes from one or another government department. "Some of this expenditure is in the form of grants to local authorities, agricultural organizations, volunteer groups, and so on so they can pursue their own adult education activities, and nearly all non-central government organizations rely very heavily on government support. Private industry provides some finances for industrial training by means of a levy on employers, and some groups get financial help for adult education from members' fees and public donations."

The situation is similar in Australia, where no attempt has been made to estimate the proportion of funds derived from different government and non-governmental resources. Some ambivalence may be discerned among some in the non-governmental sector: on the one hand there is a desire to attract more government support for adult education work; on the other, there is a fear that such increased support may lead to loss of autonomy.

In terms of the assistance given to the individual learner, there is also much variety: in some countries they are required to pay a fee while in others adult education is free and various forms of assistance are also provided. In China and the Socialist Republic of Viet Nam a learner contribution is normally expected. This is also normally the case in the USSR, the exception being certain evening courses. In Sri Lanka, likewise, fees are not normally paid, and Afghanistan, Bangladesh, India and Pakistan are among the countries where adult education is free. In Japan it is either free or the fee is nominal.

In Papua New Guinea "Government policy is to encourage self-reliance. Therefore in economically advanced provinces adult learners are encouraged to pay the full costs while in economically depressed provinces subsidies are provided. . ." In New Zealand it varies in different situations between no fee and a fee to cover the full costs; "averages or generalizations are misleading." The position in Australia is that generally training and retraining courses with a clear vocational purpose provided by government are without fee, though some professional updating courses carry very high fees. Non-vocational courses carry a fee which may sometimes be quite low but is often nowadays quite high.

In the Republic of Korea all social education programmes provide free tuition apart from "school education for youth and adult learners with schooling and incomplete schooling and private institutions provided with adult learners." Finally in Thailand, whereas academic stream adult education is charged for and vocational trainees have to pay a fee whose amount depends on the course (covering the cost of materials used in the course) functional literacy, interest group education, continuing general education and also public library usage are free.

On the other side, a few countries, such as Bangladesh and Pakistan, provide free instructional materials as well as charging no fee. Others are not yet able to provide support for adult learners beyond free tuition. Papua New Guinea has not yet entered this area and in India provision is at present 'very meagre'. Thailand provides a small daily stipend for those in training courses of all kinds.

Sri Lanka learners also generally receive a daily or monthly allowance for out-of-pocket expenses. But: "legislation has yet to be framed making it obligatory for employers to provide learning opportunities to their employees. A beginning has been made in the worker education programme started in the universities. Most participants in adult education programmes do so in their own time–afternoons,week-ends and holidays."

Afghanistan provides paid study leave and reduced working hours as well as free instructional materials. In the USSR those attending evening courses are allowed one free day during the working week on half pay, and additional paid leave for examination sessions. Employers have to create the necessary conditions, and to consider upgrading of education for promotion. "Students of the evening institutions and higher education by correspondence have an additional paid leave of from 20 to 40 working days."

The Socialist Republic of Viet Nam has various regulations to assist learners. For instance, State-employed workers and functionaries enjoy full salary during learning time and village and co-operative personnel "are offered an amount of money for their material needs during learning time." Part-time learners (learning at work) receive paid leave for lesson review prior to examinations; and learners' children may be kept at kindergarten.

New Zealand provides bursary assistance including a hardship allowance for full-time higher education students, and in some places *crêche* facilities. "Paid study leave and reduced working hours are provided for certain public servants and by some private companies for their employees. More apprentices are being granted either block courses of study or day-release study instead of the old evening study. Their wages continue during this study." In addition, fees in state educational institutions are heavily subsidized.

The position is similar in Australia. A living allowance for those made redundant through job obsolescence is a significant innovation of the 1970s; this allows them to be retrained for another occupation.

Thus it appears that financial assistance to learners is concentrated in those situations where some economic benefit is expected to accrue both to the individual and the society as a result of adult education, whether this be functional literacy or retraining in a post-industrial society. General education or education for self-development is partially subsidized in various countries, fees being nominal rather than adequate to meet real costs. There appears to be little conscious rationalization between resources and expertise of the Ministry of Education, adult education organizations, and the diverse adult education efforts that occur through different means, both public and private, throughout the society, in many countries.

The non-governmental sector

Planning the contribution of adult education to national development is naturally a matter for government. In some systems and traditions, however, the offering of adult education, and even to some extent the implementation of national adult education development objectives, is seen as a function of the non-profit-making private, or non-governmental, voluntary sector. This may be based on a philosophical belief in the role of non-governmental agencies, on the educational grounds that greater diversity and responsiveness to different community and learner needs may thus be achieved than through a more uniform, government-provided system—or on grounds of economy, if voluntary community resources can be mobilized.

In some countries a national association exists, of adult educators and/or adult education organizations, to foster professional exchange and raise the quality and standing of adult education. Such associations in a western tradition are strictly speaking non-governmental, although they may include significant government participation and leadership. In some countries, there is no such association.

Papua New Guinea has no national association of adult education as such. "What we have is a National Council of Village Development which co-ordinates development of adult education in the country since provinces now have the power to determine their own policies in adult education. This was established this year under the Prime Minister's Department." In China a National Association for Anti-Illiteracy was set up in 1958 "to assist the Government in mobilizing and organizing the society to launch a literacy campaign."

Other countries also have an official or semi-official, government-sponsored or initiated body. Bangladesh has a high-powered National Mass Literacy Council of 13 ministers, formed in 1978 to formulate policy guidelines, co-ordinate government and non-governmental effort, and help the smooth running of the programme. In New Zealand the National Council of Adult Education is a semi-governmental co-ordinating body for adult education. It is empowered "to assist organizations engaged in adult education, to conduct surveys, to initiate pioneering activities, call conferences, collect and disseminate information, advise the government on adult education and. . . stimulate its activity." More recently, in 1974, a New Zealand Association for Continuing and Community Education was also created,". . . combining resources so that its members respond more effectively to the needs of the community."

Sri Lanka formed a National Council of Non-Formal Education in 1979 with a membership of ministers and departmental heads. Its functions are to review and evaluate non-formal education activities, to formulate programmes, co-ordinate, optimize benefits, promote research and needs studies, and to compile a national directory. More recently still, in early 1980 , a non-governmental association was also formed, known as the Sri Lanka Association of Total Education.

Indonesia has two national bodies, the National Association for Adult and Community Education and an association for professional people in social education and social development. The first of these was established in 1970 to develop and exchange ideas and information on non-formal education; its membership is governmental non-formal education personnel. The second is for people qualified or interested in non-formal education. Its advice is needed by Government. Both bodies are led from the Directorate of Community Education, *Penmas*.

A somewhat similar association to the first of these has recently been reactivated by the Office of Non-Formal Education in the Ministry of Education and Culture in the Philippines, where there is also a recently formed association in the non-government sector. Singapore has recently seen the formation of a national association outside the government sector, and a similar association is under consideration in Malaysia. In Hong Kong, a strong non-governmental association has been in existence for several years.

India has probably the oldest national association in the region, the Indian Adult Education Association founded in 1939. It acts as a clearing house, gives technical help and advice to government, institutions and individuals, co-operates with other bodies in training and research, publishes books and directories, and arranges seminars and conferences.

Australia's national association was founded in 1960. It receives a small government grant but more of its income is from membership fees, sale of publications, and other activities. Its range of functions closely resembles those of the Indian Adult Education Association and also, despite its different status, the New Zealand Council of Adult Education. Japan has many national non-governmental associations in the adult education field, such as the Japan Social Education Federation, Social Correspondence Education Association, Book Reading Promotion Movement Committee and others.

Finally in the Republic of Korea, the Korean Association of Adult and Youth Education, founded in 1976, has as its functions research and development in adult education, planning and co-operation among adult education institutions. Like its counterpart in other countries it is the country member of the non-governmental regional Asian and South

Pacific Bureau of Adult Education (ASPBAE), through which it participates in regional adult education exchanges of experience, ideas and personnel.

Existence of a national association, which facilitates national and regional exchange and professional development, is not always an accurate indicator of the level of non-governmental adult education activity. In Afghanistan, it is true, there is little such activity, although some financial contribution is made by private and non-governmental agencies and individuals. Pakistan mentions the Girl Guides Association, the All Pakistan Women's Association, and the Basic Adult Education Association. Nepal has a National Council for social service co-ordination.

Thailand mentions among non-governmental agencies the National Women's Council, the Thailand Rural Reconstruction Movement (a counterpart of which is found in the Philippines), the Population Education Association, and the Social Welfare Association. In the Socialist Republic of Viet Nam "besides state institutions, various forms of popular organizations play an important role in adult education." Committees for Adult Education at each level have "a broad representation from the Communist Party of Viet Nam, the administration and popular organizations and personalities . . . Each popular organization (General Federation of Trade Unions, Central Committee of the Ho Chi Minh Communist Youth Union, Viet Nam Women's Union. . .) considers learning as an obligation and a right, and creates conditions for all to make advance in learning. . ."

In the Soviet Union "non-formal education of adults is covered by various public societies like *Znanie* scientific and technical societies. *Znanie* deals with general cultural education, moral education, upgrading of the cultural background of the specialists working in different fields of the national economy. Scientific and technical societies deal with the vocational retraining and industrial arts development. There are many public societies, for environmental protection, gardeners, flower amateurs and others. *Znanie* activities, like those of the public universities, are greatly supported by the Communist Party.

In the different circumstances of Papua New Guinea it is mainly the missions which are active, and non-public bodies like the Summer Institute of Linguistics (SIL). In China, the trade unions assist education departments in mobilizing the masses in urban areas, with Communist Youth League organizations playing the same role in rural areas. The contributions of women's federations and departments for popular science are also indispensable.

Bangladesh, which lists 14 government agencies or kinds of agencies engaged in non-formal education, also provides a longer list of agencies and kinds of non-government agencies involved, such as the Family Planning Association, Bangladesh Association for Community Education, the Association for Community Development, the Rural Advancement Committee, Handloom and Cottage Industry Associations and bodies like the Y.M.C.A., Y.W.C.A., Scouts and Guides.

New Zealand has many dozens of organizations and agencies involved in adult education and loosely associated with the National Council. Apart from the government sector, including public educational institutions, these can be grouped as voluntary educational organizations, distance education agencies, private profit-making bodies, and other non-formal education bodies such as trade unions, libraries and theatre groups. Many churches and community service groups would also be included. The situation is similar in Australia, but it is harder to obtain information in the absence of a central and semi-official body and a directory such as the New Zealand Council produces.

Sri Lanka lists eight organizations, starting with the influential Sarvodaya work donation movement and including Y.M.C.A. and Y.W.C.A., and church and industrial training institutes. In Indonesia there is the organization of wives of government employees (*Dharma Wanita*) with branches down to local levels, the Islamic *Pesantren*, the family planning organization with provincial branches; also the *Kuliah Kerja Nyata* organizes students of universities in their three months of community work, most of which is non-formal education.

In India, over 500 voluntary organizations are included. The Republic of Korea classifies its relevant non-governmental organizations as higher education institutions, independent institutions (like the Catholic rural leadership training centre), voluntary organizations like scouts and guides, Red Cross and Family Planning Association, in-service workers' training, mass-media adult or social education, and miscellaneous programmes by private tutoring organizations. In Japan "the basic principle. . . is to respect and promote private activities as much as possible, and therefore the role of the state or public sector is to give assistance in the field where the private activities are insufficient or not expected", . . . sometimes with financial subsidy.

There is, then, great variety in the strength of non-governmental adult education throughout the region, much of which is a natural reflection of different traditions and systems; there is also variety in the way different kinds of work are classified.

Planning of non-governmental adult education. There are variances as to whether this sector is taken into account in government planning for adult education. At one extreme, as in Australia, there is no national adult education planning as such, although where a particular national need is identified, as for retraining, federal or State governments tend to look for partnerships of public and private effort, and this can include the voluntary as well as the private commercial/industrial sector. Afghanistan, Bangladesh and Thailand indicate that this sector does not feature in such planning.

At the other extreme, in Japan, adult education is conceived as being done basically in the private sector so that the role of the public sector is "to promote the private sector, or to organize itself in those areas where the activities of the private sector are not expected or insufficient." Japan accordingly subsidizes the running costs of private-sector adult education through state and local authorities. In Bangladesh, while this sector is not directly taken into account in national planning, it is nonetheless assisted by such means as books and materials, and the training of literacy teachers. Some government funds in Thailand are also allocated to assisting non-governmental agencies in adult education.

Another country where the role of voluntary organizations is clear in national adult education planning is India. Here they are represented on Advisory Boards and in meetings, and are seen as a major means of implementation of the National Adult Education Programme which is fully financed from the centre. Voluntary organizations can obtain financial help from the State as well as central level of government. Pakistan also states that this sector is taken into account in planning, and is assisted through grants. Papua New Guinean government policies also encourage this sector and financial assistance is provided, and the same applies to the Republic of Korea. Indonesia also provides funds to non-formal education in this sector through central and local funds, and *Penmas* works through *Dharma Wanita* in literacy and pre-vocational skill-training work. The USSR refers here to the support to the work of the public universities, noting that *Znanie* has its own funds, as do other scientific and technical societies. Sri Lanka refers to initial steps towards ensuring concerted effort for both planning and implementation; some agencies registered with the Department of Social Services are able to attract government financial support for non-formal education work, and some also attract substantial support from foreign funds.

Finally in New Zealand, as in Japan, "it is assumed . . . that non-governmental agencies are the main providers and state-supported agencies are planned to supplement or assist the work of voluntary organizations." "Certain areas of non-government adult education are financed in part by the government . . . A grant is made from government funds considering all educational priorities in the light of national resources, and adult-education priorities among educational priorities."

Personnel for adult education

Non-formal adult education has the advantage over formal education that its costs tend to be much lower. Whereas over 90 per cent of recurrent budgets for formal education may commonly be committed to teachers' salaries and the salaries of others in the education enterprise, adult education relies much more on part-time paid or voluntary and unpaid workers. This greatly reduces per-capita costs of instruction but it also means that adult education workers are often untrained or minimally trained for the work they have to do. Training of personnel, essentially by in-service short courses is a main preoccupation for those responsible for adult education planning and implementation.

In some countries the main adult education work force is schoolteachers; here the question arises as to whether the methods employed for instruction of children are suitable for adult education. On the other hand, longer courses of training which take workers away from the local community setting may undermine a distinctive strength of much adult education: its close contact with the needs and circumstances of local communities. Professionalization of adult education could therefore be undesirable as well as impracticably costly. Practically speaking the challenge may be to provide very good professional preparation for the leading cadres in adult education, which may require graduate study at home or abroad but which does not lead to loss of contact with the needs and problems of rural people and of adult educators working as organizers and teachers at provincial and local levels. Where there is heavy reliance on part-time and voluntary workers questions arise also about reward systems of a financial or an honorific kind.

In Japan social education officers of the local boards of education are trained at universities and junior colleges. The Ministry asked 17 universities to offer certificate training, which was provided to 2,045 successful candidates in 1978. The state in Japan also subsidizes prefectures and private bodies to support part-time and volunteer social education work. In the neighbouring Republic of Korea (as also in Hong Kong) professionally trained full-time personnel are in short supply: although various higher education institutions do offer full-time courses pertaining to adult or social education, "there are no specific, categorized programmes in the training of professional personnel."

Nepal trains adult education personnel through the Adult Education Division of the Ministry of Education, the Panchayat Training Centre, the

Ministry of Health Auxiliary Health Centre, and the Junior Technician Training Centre of the Ministry of Agriculture.

In New Zealand "full-time adult educators are found in university extension operations, technical institutes, community colleges, and some secondary and primary schools. . . A few other full-time educators are found in organizations which receive government grants, or other government agencies. All of the continuing education organizations within the Department of Education's structure employ large numbers of part-time tutors . . . Tutors of non-formal courses, volunteers, and community resource people do not undertake a structured training programme on the whole. They are taught by others doing the same job although there are emerging training programmes for leaders . . . In many of the community education projects . . . the local co-ordinator trains some of the tutors as trainers so they can start their own tutor training groups. . . In the field of materials development and curricula, there is now an emerging provision for the training of adult educators. . ."

Among the socialist systems, the Socialist Republic of Viet Nam has different types of cadres for adult education: teachers specializing in complementary education; regular general education teachers doing complementary education also; and part-time teachers such as technicians in factories and co-operatives. Each village has one or two adult education cadres, each district two or three officials, each province and city about ten cadres for complementary education. At the centre there are 30 leading cadres for complementary education and 20 researchers in adult education reform. Most receive training within the normal system of university and college teacher education; "part-time teachers, already cultivated, only need training in short-term courses in pedagogy and teaching methodology for adults."

The Soviet Union has many different universities and institutions which have special courses and programmes for teachers in adult education. Preparation of the teachers for adult education is undertaken in industrial establishments, commercial firms and companies which run their own training courses. Other adult educators are specialists such as scientists, or those who have completed the specialized teacher courses at educational or public institutions.

Worker-education personnel in China are divided into administrators (the personnel in the professional institutions of worker-peasant education, teachers and cadres of the peasant schools) and teaching staff. Only about 0.5 per cent of teachers are full-time in factories and mines, and there are few in the rural areas, each commune generally having one such teacher. The voluntary or semi-voluntary majority includes technical personnel from factories and mines, government functionaries, school teachers and other intellectuals.

Thailand and Indonesia are among countries with large government establishments for adult education deployed at all levels from the central to the local. In Thailand there are full-time government officials and experts, part-time partly paid teachers for functional literacy and education, walking teachers, walking Buddhist monks, interest-group teachers and part-time experts, and volunteers including village leaders and leaders of housewife, youth and women's voluntary groups. The Department provides both pre-service and in-service training for these different categories; 5,090 persons received training thus in 1979. Training occurs at national, regional, sub-provincial and village levels and covers many curriculum, subject and methodological areas. Senior departmental members tend to receive their graduate training overseas, although higher education institutions in Thailand are now coming to offer degree courses in adult non-formal education and extension.

Indonesia deploys government adult education officers at national, provincial, district and sub-district levels; the field-worker at this last level is the *Penilik*, who supervises all subdistrict community education activities. Non-government personnel are voluntary and unpaid, being recommended by the head of the village; they tend to be teachers, local leaders and people with particular skills. Government training programmes for both categories of workers run from 3 to 14 days. They cover various subjects, materials development, administration, evaluation and monitoring, training techniques and programme implementation, and were planned to reach 11,680 workers in 1979-80. Like Thailand, Indonesia tends to look abroad for the training of its most senior adult education officers.

In Papua New Guinea a part-time two-year programme has been launched in the University; the Institute of Administrative Studies conducts a full-time nine-month course for extension trainers. There are also occasional national training workshops, and a few at provincial level. Papua New Guinea has both full-time government officers, part-time teachers paid for specific periods, and voluntary mission personnel.

Afghanistan has mainly full-time teachers and unpaid volunteers. "The minimum qualification for becoming a teacher of adult education is a high school diploma. Further training is given to these teachers on the job and as part-time training by seminars, workshops, short fellowships. . ." About 1,000 teachers per year are trained. Senior personnel have higher training than these teachers. Training is at national and provincial levels and includes curriculum and materials development, planning, research and evaluation.

Nepal has some full-time paid teachers but the National Development Service students and social workers do voluntary work. Pakistan relies upon part-time teachers and supervisors from the formal education system, with training programmes arranged by the Ministry of Education in the form of seminars and workshops. Bangladesh employs both full-time and part-time people. Training for full-time people on the pilot project includes organization and supervision of programmes, as well as psychology and methodology. The Institute of Adult Education provided short-course training over 15 years for 13,407 teachers. Training of part-timers in this project is at the local (*thana*) level. The Mass Education Programme involves full-, part-time and voluntary staff. Training for mass literacy teachers and other workers in the programme is in two-day courses on methods, organization and evaluation; it took place at the national level for about 100 key personnel, at district level for 500 education officers and a thousand teachers to act as *thana*-level trainers, at *thana*-level for 14,400 teachers to act as union-level trainers, and for 350,000 teachers at the union-level.

India employs full-time adult education personnel in States, Districts and for projects, and as supervisors, and has part-time partly-paid instructors rather than volunteers in the main: school teachers, students, village youth, ex-servicemen and other retired personnel, field-level government and other functionaries, and voluntary social workers. Training of key level personnel uses State Resource Centres for project officers, supervisors and resource persons. The national Directorate arranges training of key personnel, while instructors are also trained at the project level. A number of universities now provide formal degree programmes in adult education.

All categories of workers are also found in Sri Lanka, where government involvement is more recent and training of personnel is "done by various organizations in an unco-ordinated manner . . . Orientation seminars are held periodically to brief Ministry personnel. . . systematic training of personnel is undertaken by voluntary organizations through seminars, workshops and work camps."

Turning briefly to the kind of reward offered to adult educators in different countries, in Sri Lanka, where the Government has only recently come to realize the importance of adult education, "the private sector and voluntary organizations offer better and more attractive incentives than the public sector. They provide better conditions of service and opportunities for training abroad. . ." In some countries incentives for voluntary workers are not sought; in India "adult education should be taken as a part of service to the nation." This is highlighted and there are no honoraria to instructors.

In Bangladesh the programme is run on a voluntary basis and literacy teachers and others associated receive no pay or allowance "but there is provision for sufficient number of national and other awards for commendable contribution to the programmes. Moreover, literacy workers will be awarded certificates which may become boons for many of them to get jobs and other facilities." In Thailand certificates of appreciation and honoraria are offered to part-time and volunteer personnel to encourage participation, and there are occasional fellowship visits abroad.

Indonesia offers no direct incentives "but learners and their local community usually supply some type of material or non-material incentives." In the USSR, public university and similar teachers have no regular salaries but are stimulated by premiums and official diplomas of acknowledgement. The Socialist Republic of Viet Nam "has a system of awarding decorations, honoured papers or circulation to localities, units and individuals outstanding in adult education."

In New Zealand the motivation and reward system is somewhat akin to that as described in India, but with stress on personal non-material benefit rather than on national service. "This voluntary participation is due to high motivation, and there are few incentives apart from the personal growth which takes place through involvement in such activities and the opportunity for work satisfaction and intellectual stimulation. Most participate through a desire to help others, sometimes because they themselves have been helped."

Needs for the future

In the majority of countries there are clear concerns about the quality of the adult education service which are expressed in terms of need for better training. Japan comments on the need for more advanced personnel as the contents of adult education become diversified and developed. This implies recruiting more school teachers into adult education, enhancing university courses, developing the National Training Institute of Social Education, and strengthening co-operation and co-ordination. The Republic of Korea notes the absence of specific, categorized programmes for training professional personnel; "the enactment of adult or social education law is desperately needed."

The national association in Australia places professional development of adult education personnel high in priorities in its planning for the next five years. The appointment of a full-time Training Development Officer in the New Zealand Council is currently promoting better training throughout the country. Even so, back-up support for adult education personnel "in the form of materials, financial incentives, compensation for time and travel, training and teaching techniques have not been substantially developed."

The Socialist Republic of Viet Nam's particular need, looking ahead, is complementary education development and teachers for the mountainous regions. Thailand comments on deficiencies in planning, research and evaluation, and looks to deploy local experts short-term on research, design and training in these areas. Pakistan is looking for training of adult educators in the development of curricular, motivational, instructional and follow-up materials. In Bangladesh shortage of personnel is acutely felt in curriculum development, development of reading materials, research and evaluation, publication and teacher training, and overseas assistance may be obtained for these.

The most acute shortages in Afghanistan are felt in skill development training, adult education methodology, educational planning, literacy and skill development, training methods and techniques, psychology and evaluation, and simple readers' methodology and techniques. Training both at home and abroad is seen as necessary to meet these needs. In Sri Lanka it is felt that for the objectives of adult education to be fully realized a well-planned and co-ordinated training scheme is essential for several categories of workers. Nepal experiences an acute shortage of paper for books and needs an information bulletin for training.

Regional co-operation and exchange

Despite the great size and diversity of the region of Asia and the Pacific there is evidence of considerable exchange of experience in the adult education field, and of a desire for further practical forms of exchange and co-operation. Most countries enjoy various forms of co-operation, especially through Unesco and its innovative APEID network. A number of countries such as Australia, New Zealand, Papua New Guinea, the Republic of Korea, Sri Lanka and Thailand also enjoy forms of co-operation and exchange through ASPBAE and in some cases its international linked organization, the International Council for Adult Education. Many countries give examples of particular recent workshops, fellowships and other exchanges which have proved useful.

Generally the countries are positive about the need for more such regional co-operation. Some specify particular areas of learning from which they could benefit; many of them naturally corresponding to perceived deficiencies in current knowledge and especially staff development, as set out in the previous section. Among specific areas mentioned are included: integrated rural development; education of youth and of women; education related to rural areas including agricultural education; language and literacy work; mass media; communication and media workshops, and communication policies; work on adult education related to population control, and on social disharmony; and work on curriculum development, materials production, research and evaluation, planning and administration, management and measurement of non-formal education activities, and programmes for productive and marketing skills.

Different modes of co-operation are suggested, generally as currently experienced, such as workshops and seminars, apprenticeships and fellowships, training activities on a joint or regional basis and joint research activities. Some more remote countries emphasize the need to be selective and to identify priorities for co-operation and exchange, while emphasizing also the mutual advantage to be derived from such exchanges. The Socialist Republic of Viet Nam, mentioning the suffering of years of continuous war and a wish to intensify co-operation and exchange of experience between nations, specifies as priorities assistance in paper and textbook publishing, and modern technical teaching means for adult education.

One test of the practical viability of regional co-operation and exchange is provided by the 1976 Unesco Recommendation for the Development of Adult Education. Some countries attach importance to the Recommendation, and to regional exchange related to it, as does China. In Papua New Guinea it is thought that "many aspects of the recommendation have been unconsciously undertaken in the country, for example the integrated approach to extension work and training. . . it can be said that the Government policy does in fact accommodate this recommendation." The Socialist Republic of Viet Nam finds that the Recommendation constitutes valuable material which is useful for reference during adult education reform, and India discerns indirect gains through acceptance of the concept.

The recommendation has also been used indirectly in educational planning in the Republic of Korea, with social education becoming involved in educational as well as economic planning through the concept of life-long education. This was assisted through a 1979 Unesco APEID workshop in the Republic of Korea which led to 11 recommendations coming forward to the Government.

In some countries more direct links may be discerned. Bangladesh states that the recommendation has been used in national educational planning, resulting in greater emphasis on adult education in the second Five-Year Plan and phases I and II of the Mass Education Programme. A separate Directorate of Adult Education is also expected in the early 1980s. Pakistan mentions increased funds for adult education, pilot projects and a National Adult Education Centre as actions taken under the recommendation. Afghanistan links decisions to eradicate illiteracy with the Unesco Recommendation through the Five-Year Plan and GALC, drafted with reference to the Recommendation.

Sri Lanka links the creation of a National Council and work towards a Directory with the Recommendation, and Thailand makes connections with many aspects of its non-formal education work and planning in the National Economic and Social Development Plan and the National Education Scheme. Indonesia makes direct as well as indirect connections, for instance: "in line with the Unesco Recommendation the training of fieldworkers (*Penilik*) as well as facilitators is employing a new method that uses the experience of the trainees. Before attending the training they prepare a light paper concerned with their experiences and problems. The content of the training is more discussion, exchange of experiences and field work rather than lectures in the classroom."

In Japan the Recommendation is one of the factors being taken into account in a current review of the whole education structure from a lifelong education perspective. In Australia, while it cannot be said that national policy has been directly affected, publicity was given to the Recommendation through a national conference, dissemination of the document was fostered, and it was used as one basis for advancing ideas about national co-ordination and development.

New Zealand held a major national conference and more than ten regional seminars on the Recommendation and it is reportedly constantly referred to. The National Council is currently using it in a review of development priorities. "It is probably too early to estimate the full impact of the Recommendation on New Zealand Adult Education, but there is now a much wider appreciation among agencies and educators of the need to make a major effort to provide for those who are educationally disadvantaged or unemployed. The National Council's appointment of field officers in adult literacy, training development, Maori and Pacific Islands education, and continuing education through the broadcast media, is an indication of this change of emphasis." That the Recommendation is still having an influence is also suggested by the fact that a 1980 working party in New Zealand examined adult education in the light of the Recommendation.

Perhaps the expected next world conference of Unesco on adult education (1984) is the earliest reasonable time to expect to assess the impact of the Recommendation. Meanwhile it may be taken as evidence of the high potential of international or regional exchange as one means of fostering the development of adult education and the introduction of new concepts and perspectives to policy-makers. ☐

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AFGHANISTAN

by Abdul Ali Wahaj

Introduction

In Afghanistan, during the past century, especially during the government of the Yahya Dynasty, the people lived in poverty and ignorance. One of the main reasons for low production and unemployment in the country was illiteracy.

Education was deteriorating, unemployment was rapidly increasing and migration from rural to urban areas was becoming a serious problem. In the field of formal education fewer than 30 per cent of the school-age children were enrolled and out of this only 1 per cent were able to reach universities. The rate of drop-outs was very high and no attention was paid to this situation. The formal educational programmes were in the cities, and the majority of people, living in the rural areas, were forgotten. The non-formal educational programmes were limited to a few literacy courses in two or three selected areas, catering to about five thousand participants.

Fortunately, after the great Revolution of *Saur* 7th 1357 (1978), and especially since the 6th of *Jaddi* 1358 (1979) the situation has changed, marking the beginning of a new era in the history of Afghanistan. A Five-Year Plan for the eradication of illiteracy has now been formulated. From the very beginning of the Revolution, the people who had been oppressed for years were freed and accepted this campaign with enthusiasm.

The very basic changes in the country brought about through Decrees Nos. 6, 7 and 8 are the main motivational forces for the people to take an active part in the reconstruction of society. This was the main reason that, during the first year of the campaign, more than one million adults joined literacy classes, and more than 18,000 volunteer teachers engaged in teaching.

Now the country is designing a programme for out-of-school children and starting a programme for school drop-outs. Both formal and non-formal programmes for women have been formulated and launched in rural and urban areas.

The number of primary and secondary schools has been tripled and enrolments have been extended to full capacity. It is expected that, during the five-year plan period, education will be universalized and, by the end of 1362 (1983), some 452,000 school-age children will be in the first grade of primary school (at present more than 200,000 children are enrolled in the first grade).

The main objective of the present government is to provide the basic needs of the people: food, clothing and shelter. With this in view, curricular materials have been developed for both the formal and non-formal education sectors.

Background

Illiteracy is recognized as one of the major factors hindering socio-economic progress and people's active participation in the national development of Afghanistan. The overall literacy rate is estimated at a mere 5 per cent, the position among rural population and women being particularly low. The first census in Afghanistan was conducted only four months ago; according to this the total population of Afghanistan is 15.4 million. Out of this number, illiteracy is of the following order in the crucial age-groups:

8-14 - about 3.6 million
15-50 - about 5.6 million.

Of the total population of 15.4 million, 15 per cent live in urban areas whereas 85 per cent live in the rural areas (the latter includes nomads as well). The distribution of *illiteracy* according to sex, in rural and urban areas, is as follows:

Rural		Urban	
Men	Women	Men	Women
95%	99%	30%	95%

This gives us a total of 8.2 million illiterates among the active population of the country (8-50 years of age).

In the past, access to educational facilities was very limited. Fewer than 30 per cent of school-age children had been enrolled in primary schools and the rate of drop-out was very high. During the last decade or so some limited experimental activities have been carried out with assistance from Unesco, SIDA, UNFPA and UNDP. These programmes reached only a proportionately small number of men and women. Nevertheless, these activities resulted in some positive gains such as the design and experimental try-out of functional literacy materials for specific target groups (farmers, co-operative members and women), and an operational structure in eight provinces—as well as training of national staff.

Following the 7th of *Saur* Revolution and establishment of the Democratic Republic of Afghanistan (27 April 1978) the eradication of illiteracy and the promotion of awareness among people of their responsibilities have acquired a new urgency.

The Revolution of *Saur*, particularly its new evolutionary phase, not only accelerated the process of the decline of feudalism but opened the door of hope for people towards a bright future, where the shadow of exploitation of man by man will cease to exist, and the people will take a creative part in the political and social life of the country in the light of human knowledge and towards the creation of a new Afghanistan. To reach this goal, it is necessary to generalize education throughout the country. It is for this reason that the Government considers the Campaign Against Illiteracy as important as the struggle against feudalism. The generalization of literacy has a decisive role in changing the attitude of the people, removing fanaticism and superstition, increasing productivity and mobilizing the creative forces of the nation.

The basic line of the Revolutionary duties of the Democratic Republic of Afghanistan brings out this point and emphasizes a simultaneous two-pronged approach combining the universalization of primary education with universalization of adult literacy.

Objectives and first achievements

We have said that the total number of illiterate men and women in Afghanistan in the age-group 8–50 is about 8.2 million; this figure expresses the amplitude of the task. The Government has launched a campaign, the purpose of which is to eradicate illiteracy in the first five-year Development Plan. In accordance with the needs of the socio-economic reconstruction of the country, the following are seen as some of the goals of the Literacy Campaign:

1. Changing the attitude of the people for the benefit of the country's progress;
2. Opening the way for the participation of the people in socio-economic reconstruction of the country;
3. Increasing the productivity of the people through functional literacy and education;
4. The creation of better family education; and
5. The betterment of health and fitness.

Work has just begun but the following tasks have been achieved:

1. A Five-Year Plan for a Mass Literacy Campaign (1979–1983) has been worked out;

2. The General Agency for Literacy Campaign (GALC) has been restructured and re-organized;
3. A high-level National Committee has been set up to formulate policies and facilitate campaign implementation;
4. The basic literacy programme and materials covering about 210 days, 90 minutes each day, have been designed by an inter-ministerial team and [have now been] printed;
5. The Provincial Directors responsible for the Literacy Campaign have been appointed in all the 26 provinces;
6. Provincial Literacy Committees have been set up in the provinces under the authority of the Governors;
7. National orientation and training seminars were held for the General Directors responsible for the Literacy Campaign in all the provinces; also a national seminar was held for the Provincial Directors in Kabul, for key personnel at the national level;
8. Intensive literacy activities are being carried out by the Ministry of Defence for its personnel;
9. A multi-faceted motivation and publicity campaign has been in operation using the media and other means;
10. As the result of the above, around one million new learners were enrolled during an 18-month period;
11. Since the campaign is a national effort, different ministries, national agencies and organizations have initiated actions to contribute to the achievement of the targets in their respective sectors;
12. Key personnel of the national staff have been deputed to study and undertake observation visits to different countries.

The interesting point is that GALC is not the only organization responsible for this campaign implementation; since the Literacy Campaign is a national effort for which all resources are being mobilized, GALC is playing the role of co-ordinator. As a consequence these one million learners already enrolled in our literacy classes are being taught not only by official teachers or GALC teachers (fewer than 3,000 GALC teachers are teaching) but mainly by volunteer teachers (more than 18,000) from mass organizations, literate members of village committees, youth organizations, Party members, the Afghan Khalqi Women's Organization, Co-operatives, Committees of Assistance Funds, Labour Unions, Women's Organization Syndicates and inter-ministerial organizations. The volunteer teachers thus take a major part in the implementation of the Mass Literacy Campaign.

Why a common programme ?

Since Afghanistan has a Revolutionary government and the chief objective of the government is to reach the masses, the mass campaign was launched to preserve the cultural identity of the people and to impart to them the following knowledge and skills: (1) basic literacy and numeracy skills; (2) political and civic consciousness; (3) knowledge regarding family life, health and child-care; and (4) agricultural and technical skills. Instruction is given in the five main languages. Follow-up programmes will later be designed in the different fields.

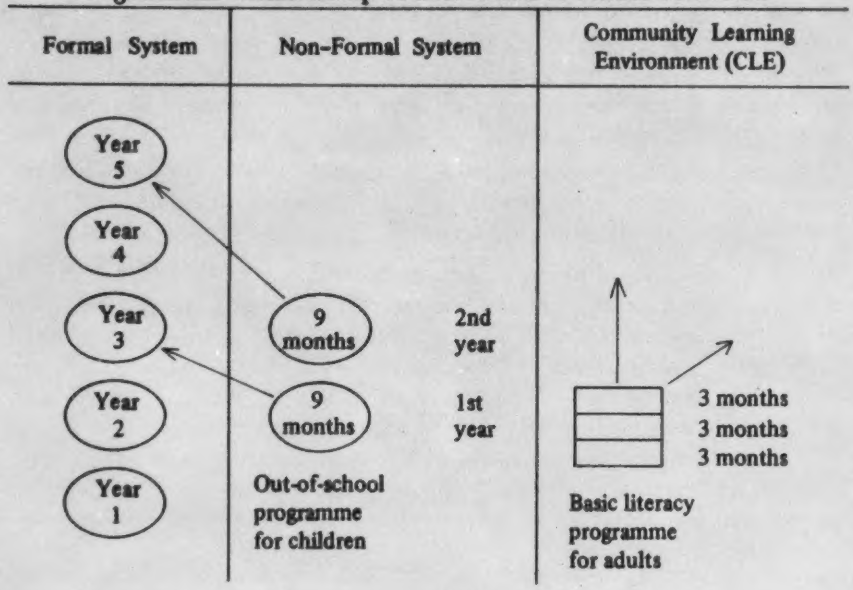
The educational objectives of the Government have been stated as being to universalize formal and non-formal education through formal and non-formal approaches. While literacy is developing on the non-formal side, in the formal system, by the end of the Five-Year Plan, all school-age children in the country will have access to school facilities. It means that, during these five years, there will still be many children who are not in school; these are to be reached through a non-formal approach. The GALC will work closely with Ministry of Education officials to implement this non-formal education for children.

As this group of children will be taught through a non-formal system to a certain level so that they may later join the formal system, some parts of the primer and reading materials have already been altered for this purpose. The main characteristic of this programme is to train the children to the level of the fourth grade. The diagram on the next page shows how this programme has been developed. In this diagram we see that the non-formal adult education is to be completed in one year in three phases, each of three months. On the other hand we see that the out-of-school programme is for two years, equal to four years of the formal system. As it is intended to train or teach the children to the levels of the formal system, each phase of our out-of-school programme for children must be made equal to two years of formal schooling.

For instance, pupils after passing the first phase can go to the third grade (year 3) of the formal system. They can continue with the second phase or year and after passing that, may enter the fifth grade (year 5). The main characteristic of this programme hence is to bring the children to that level.

The adults after finishing the three phases, if they are young enough and want to continue their education, may go to night school; if they prefer not to, then they can use the community learning centres and maintain their literacy. In general, all of this is a part of the universalization of education in the country.

Afghanistan: Relationship of non-formal to formal education


Formal System
Non-Formal System
Community Learning Environment (CLE)
Year 5
Year 4
Year 3
Year 2
Year 1
9 months
2nd year
9 months
1st year
Out-of-school programme for children
3 months
3 months
3 months
Basic literacy programme for adults

Methodology and techniques

The methodology applied is functional literacy, which is known throughout the world. It means that literacy components–language and mathematics–have been integrated into socio-political messages which are the main core of the programme.

In the methodology of language we apply a structure-global method as is applied in some other developing countries. The main feature of this method is that from the very beginning the learners face complete meaningful messages, out of which they are asked to identify some elements. At the beginning the elements are words taken out of phrases or sentences. Later on they become graphemes. This method is facilitated by the fact that Afghan languages are phonetic ones which means that they present a close correspondence between sound and letter, phoneme and grapheme.

This has allowed the designers to integrate language progression into the main core of socio-political contents. The same applies to numeracy (mathematics) which, from the beginning, is taught in meaningful contexts. Always referring to adult experiences in terms of mathematical concepts, needs and symbols, thus using their empirical knowledge progressively, learners are asked to analyse and systematize these experiences in mathematical terms.

The techniques are very simple, as the country is engaged in a mass campaign, not just an experimental pilot project. Hence we are using mass techniques, not sophisticated materials. We use non-professional teachers, even a sixth-grade graduate who can read and write, because we are dealing with hundreds of thousands of people throughout the country and not just a few hundred or few thousand people. The main teaching aids are books, blackboards, walls, or any simple devices.

Participatory approach

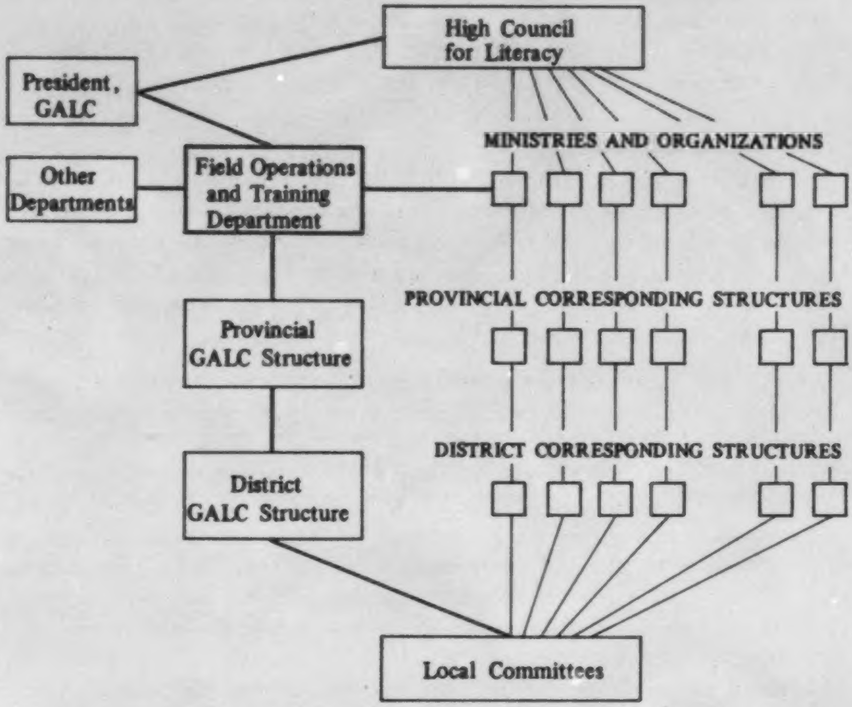
The programme, although politically oriented, has a bearing on all aspects of the life of the learners. This was the main reason that literate people in the villages and cities took an active part in the programme as volunteer teachers, and in less than six months more than 18,000 volunteer teachers had been recruited. In rural areas people were paid nominally in either cash or material for organizing literacy classes.

A mass campaign is not something which can be organized by a single organization; it needs the mobilization of all governmental and non-governmental organizations in a country. In Afghanistan, the Mass Campaign Against Illiteracy has become a priority of the Government and, as was decided by the Council of Ministers held in 1978, nearly all the ministries, organizations and agencies have to take an active part in this campaign. The Ministries involved in the campaign are: the Ministry of Education, the Ministry of Higher Education, the Ministry of National Defence, (which had already implemented literacy activities in its own sectors), the Ministry of Agriculture, through agricultural extension and co-operatives, the Rural Development Department, the Ministry of Public Health and political organizations such as women's, youths', farmers' and workers' organizations.

The diagram on the next page shows how the organizational network has been established for the implementation of this programme. Here we see that not only GALC, but other ministries and organizations are responsible for this Mass Campaign. These ministries, agencies and organizations are directly involved in the literacy campaign implementation from the national to the field level and even at the village level. In the village there are people who play an active role in the campaign. These activated people can be school teachers, extension workers, co-operative agents, or any other literate farmers or workers. Thus, from the organizational and structural network points of view, decentralization is as important as centralization.

NATIONAL LITERACY CAMPAIGN

Co-ordination Machinery
for Field Operation and Training Activities


High Council for Literacy
President, GALC
Other Departments
Field Operations and Training Department
MINISTRIES AND ORGANIZATIONS
PROVINCIAL CORRESPONDING STRUCTURES
Provincial GALC Structure
DISTRICT CORRESPONDING STRUCTURES
District GALC Structure
Local Committees

Testing and evaluation

Testing is an important part of our Mass Campaign and—as stated before—because of the well-organized monitoring system, we have been able to test the learners at different stages of the programme. This testing process enables us to find out whether the methods used are suitable.

One of the objectives of this testing is to determine the level of achievements of the out-of-school children so that they can be shifted to the formal system. (As we have seen, the main purpose of this programme is to enable the out-of-school children to be enrolled in the two-year programme and then to join the fifth grade of the formal system).

One of the objectives of this testing is to determine the level of achievements of the out-of-school children so that they can be shifted to the formal system. (As we have seen, the main purpose of this programme

is to enable the out-of-school children to be enrolled in the two-year programme and then to join the fifth grade of the formal system).

In a Mass Campaign it is difficult to use the testing and evaluation methods applicable to small-scale programmes. We have therefore to use mass techniques to assess the achievements. Once basic literacy is achieved and the learners are tested they will be able to join the literate community or, if they are young enough, be enrolled in night schools. This depends upon the age and the desire of the adult learner. The results of the first-year testing will enable formulation of the second-year plan of activities.

Although at the initial stage, the country faces problems like a shortage of primers, didactic materials and other teaching aids and has been using primary school books, old adult education books, school books and even newspapers and magazines in the literacy classes, tho achievements are remarkable when compared to the previous Governments. There are technical problems, but the achievements of the first year will be an indication for future activities concerning the training of personnel. So far, it has been possible to organize seminars for the central office staff and also for the provincial directors. At this time, organizing training seminars for the teachers is rather difficult. It is hoped, however, to organize in the near future training seminars in the provinces for the supervisors. Earlier, a seminar for the Provincial Directors was organized which was of great value.

Conclusion

In a country where the Government is trying to build an equal society and its main objective is to solve the basic needs of the people, literacy is all-important. Nothing can be achieved by means of small-scale experimental programmes; a mass campaign and total mobilization of all concerned ministries and organizations are required.

The techniques which are applied in a mass campaign are different from other methods. Here the application of sophisticated methods of teaching/learning is of no use or difficult to apply. The most important thing is the presence of a literate person in a class. We don't have to have teachers with diplomas or certified teachers. In a mass campaign, walls are used instead of blackboards, charcoal instead of chalk and any kind of written material for teaching literacy. Group discussions are the key for increasing the consciousness of the people. We work with the people, for the people: participatory democracy is the keynote of the programme. ☐

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AUSTRALIA

by John Wellings

Background

A large proportion of the Australian population is to be found in the cities and large towns which are served by a range of post-secondary education institutions providing adult education and a variety of other adult education agencies. Approximately ten per cent of Australians, however, live on farm properties, in villages or small towns and have extremely limited access—or none at all—to adult education.

A town with a population of 4,000 people may serve as the centre for a similar number of people living on farms and in villages, but have no adult education provision other than a few classes conducted by itinerant teachers from a larger town.

Adult education needs in Australia are met by a variety of agencies, this being the only means of providing the range of topics with the various levels of expertise demanded. Thus universities, colleges and agricultural extension services, as well as health education agencies and a variety of others, are involved in that provision. The smaller towns referred to are not large enough for these agencies to establish a permanent base for their work.

The form of distance learning which has usually been offered to people who had no access to other methods is the correspondence course. Such courses have been remarkably successful in attracting and retaining adult education students.

Two programmes now operating successfully in New South Wales in south-eastern Australia have helped overcome some of the problems of isolation. These are providing learning opportunities for adults in rural areas who were previously denied reasonable access to adult education.

Programme I—Country Adult Education Associations

The New South Wales Board of Adult Education, which is the government body to develop and co-ordinate adult education in the state, is encouraging the formation of voluntary community groups in towns which do not have a college or other centres of adult education. Twenty of these have been formed in the past two years. There is a potential need for at least 50 more in the state and it is hoped that these may be developed in the next five years.

To begin, an Adult Education Association is formed which any person in the community can join. The annual meeting elects a committee which is responsible for managing the association's activities throughout the year. The primary tasks of the organization are to identify local needs and then make arrangements for those needs to be met.

An association is able to conduct some lessons itself, particularly in various arts and crafts and basic homemaking skills. These are usually conducted on a 'self-funding' basis with the student fees meeting the local tutors' costs. More importantly, the association serves as a local organizing body so that universities, colleges and other outside agencies can co-operate with it in conducting courses in the town. In this way the local group is responsible for the promotion and local administrative arrangements, while the external institution or agency provides the expertise.

The range of learning activities being provided in this way is very broad. The organizations provide a contact point for literacy in the community and may be involved in programmes for management development and university discussion groups. Skills courses are however the most frequently requested activities.

A feature of this approach in providing adult education is that the programme clearly *belongs* to the community. Decisions about the activities which should be offered are made mainly by the community rather than external agencies. Responsibility for ensuring their success rests with the community.

Many of the associations are establishing adult learning centres. These may be in a public building such as a school or one owned by local government. Some operate from an office, shop or house, making use of other buildings for activities as required.

The programme is not an expensive one for the government. Grants totalling about A$5,000 are given to a local association each year.* About half of this is used to employ a part-time organizer, usually for the equivalent of one day a week. The remainder is used for administrative and activity costs. For each one dollar provided by the government, an association is able to generate up to two dollars from fees and subscriptions. Accountability for the government funds is ensured by assessment and reporting, including audited financial statements.

An association at Bourke, in the most remote area of the state, uses radio as the major medium for conducting courses. The principles of local responsibility, a part-time organizer, some locally-generated activities and involvement of external agencies still apply in this instance.

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* Approximately 1.10 Australian dollars (A$) = one US dollar.

The New South Wales Board of Adult Education is developing opportunities in association with regional colleges of advanced education to provide short training courses for part-time organizers and leaders of country adult education associations.

Programme II—Management Education for Farmers

The nature of agriculture in Australia means that farms are large and the farming community is very scattered. The agricultural extension services have been the major agencies providing adult education to farmers. The mode of delivery has been through meetings, field days and the mass media to solve particular farm problems as they arise. Thus an extension officer may conduct a field day to demonstrate a new method of disease control, hold a meeting to explain new marketing methods or write a newspaper article to inform farmers of a new variety of wheat.

The rate of technological change and the need for sophisticated financial planning have brought demands for learning opportunities far more extensive and at a deeper level than the traditional programmes. Economic planning and financial management are the key needs for learning. Computers are increasingly being used on farms.

It is rarely possible for a farmer to take a year away from his farm to enrol in a course at an agricultural college. Correspondence courses provide only limited value for the most determined person. Evening courses in the major rural towns cater only for a minority.

An innovatory approach was begun in New South Wales in 1970 to provide education in farm management for practising farmers at a level that would meet their needs and using a combination of delivery methods appropriate to the clients. The programme has been enlarged each year with increased participation. It is the responsibility of the State Agricultural Extension Service, although the Rural Youth Council has provided guidance and been responsible for its financial administration. The agricultural economics faculty of one of the universities has provided academic back-up to the programme.

Participation involves enrolment in a one-year course in either Farm Management or Farm Office Management. Two advanced-level courses, building on the first course in farm management, are also available. Enrolment is limited to people who are involved in farming as the course is based on actual management which takes place on the farm during the year. No academic entry level is required, but all participants must have a secondary school education.

While there is a specific curriculum for each course there is also a high degree of flexibility within it to cater for differing circumstances. The learning process is dependent on a combination of the following methods:

1. Information provided through various media,
2. Farm economic planning exercises on actual farm data,
3. Farm visits by the Extension Officer,
4. Monthly group meetings with the district Extension Officer,
5. A one-week residential school at the university, and
6. A weekend course conducted in regional centres.

The programme began with 50 participants on the first course, but almost 2,000 people have now studied under it and the enrolment rate is increasing each year. The age range of the 1980 students was from 18 to almost 70, the average being 34. Two other courses which have been offered in the programme have now been taken over by other agencies not directly part of the agricultural extension service. These courses were in Life Management (mainly for rural women) and Rural Leadership (to assist farmers involved in community development projects and farm organizations).

As the programme uses human and physical resources already within the extension service, accurate costing has not been possible. The cost to the extension service to offer the programme may be about A$80,000 per year, but the economic and social value of the programme is very high. Some estimate of the importance of the programme can be gained by considering that farm managers who have participated in it are collectively responsible for farm resources valued at more than 500 million Australian dollars. If improved management practices result in an increase of returns of a further one per cent, this provides a benefit to the economy of five million Australian dollars per year, but this would be greatly understating the value of the programme.

References

Further information about these two programmes is available from:

Country Adult Education Associations; The Secretary, New South Wales Board of Adult Education, 189 Kent Street, Sydney, New South Wales, 2000, Australia.

Farm Management Courses: The Education Officer, Division of Extension and Research, Department of Agriculture, McKell Building, Rawson Place, Sydney, New South Wales, 2000, Australia. ☐

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BANGLADESH

by Khan Alauddin

Introduction

The Government of Bangladesh has declared the eradication of illiteracy as the second phase of the National Revolution. The Government has drawn up an ambitious plan which included a crash literacy programme for eradicating mass illiteracy. This programme started on 21 February 1980 and ended on 31 December 1980. The objective of the programme was to help one crore of people (10,000,000 persons), both male and female, between the ages of 11 and 45 years, to acquire skills in simple reading, writing and calculation. It was organized by the Ministry of Education and the task of evaluation was entrusted to the Academy for Fundamental Education in Mymensingh.

Keeping in view the criteria set forth in the objectives above, the Academy prepared two draft questionnaires to use for evaluating the programme. Of the two sets of questionnaires, one is meant for neo-literates and the other for Literacy Squad Teachers. On being approved by the Government, these questionnaires were administered in four adult literacy centres of Kotwali Thana of Mymensingh district as a test case. The objectives of the tests were the following:

1. To assess the feasibility and suitability of the questionnaires.
2. To get an idea of the magnitude of the task.
3. To assess achievements of the neo-literates in three learning skills--reading, writing and calculation.
4. To gather information about Literacy Squad Teachers, Literacy Primers and other educational facilities.
5. To assess the various constraints in implementing this programme.

Limitations of the test were due to the shortage of time and the *Eidul Azha* holidays, which meant that not all the literacy centres of Kotwali Thana could be surveyed. Only three centres from an urban area and one from a rural area were included in the test. The results of the test are given below.

Methods of the sample test

To administer questionnaires and collect data, a team was formed by the faculty members of the Academy. The team decided to administer questionnaires and collect data of the test in a group from the urban as well as the rural centres. A list of literacy centres of the Kotwali Thana was first obtained from the Circle Officer, Kotwali. This has a reference of a visit of the team to the office of the Additional Deputy Commissioner (Literacy), Mymensingh.

All the centres of the sample test were visited more than once by the team. This was done to establish rapport with the clientele group and the organizers and to complete the evaluation work. Some other centres were also visited. One (Physical Training) centre enrolled only children. Other centres, namely Hindu Polli, Mahilla Sangshtha, Jubliee Ghat and Akua Primary School, were found to be non-functioning. As the evaluation was to be done just after *Eid*, however, the possibility of visiting the adults was bleak–so the team had to remain satisfied with four centres.

Centres. The centres that were included in the sample were selected at random; nevertheless the representative character of the sample was kept in view. This meant including rural centres. Therefore, the sample procedure followed can be called 'stratified random sampling'.

Three centres–Sankipara Primary School, Lions Club High School and Women's Rehabilitation Centre are situated in Mymensingh town. The only rural centre–Chaukaitala Bara Bari Centre is five miles away from the city.

Questionnaires. The questionnaire for the adult neo-literates begins by seeking some information about the learners. The rest of it contains 15 questions, five each in three skills. These questions are of multiple choice character and are followed by a proforma for immediate checking by giving a tick (✓) sign by the examiner. The main purpose of the questionnaire is to assess the achievements of the adult learners.

The questionnaires for teachers are meant for gaining information about the centre in which they work. One of the teachers in a particular centre or squad is supposed to give the information. The questionnaire has 14 questions on the qualifications, age, training, and experience of teachers.

Evaluation procedure

Four rating scales of achievement have been shown in the questionnaire for grading the answer of each question. They are, 'completely successful', 'mostly successful', 'half successful' and 'unsuccessful', and carry marks of 5, 3, 2 and 0 respectively.

By giving a tick sign in the appropriate box of the form the field-level evaluators indicate learners' performance in the test. The marks obtained by the neo-literates as in the rating mentioned above are shown in a frequency distribution along with the percentage in each class interval. The average of the frequency distribution is also shown. This helps identify the performance of those that are above average, average and below average. Those in the first two categories can be said to have acquired proficiency in learning skills.

PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF DATA CONCERNING NEO-LITERATES, LITERACY SQUADS AND CENTRE EDUCATIONAL INPUTS

Data on neo-literates: presentation and interpretation

Four hundred sixty-eight neo-literates of four literacy centres constitute the sample, but of these only 126 learners were available when the test was administered. Table 1 shows a breakdown of these figures and also the percentage of respondents who took the test.

Table 1. Literacy centres, reported enrolment, respondents of the test and their percentage

Name of the centre	Reported enrolment			Respondents			Percentage		
	M	F	Total	M	F	Total	M	F	Total
Shankipara Primary School	80	100	180	5	14	19	6	14	11
Women's Rehabilitation Centre	X	47	47	X	27	27	X	57	57
Chaukaitala Baro Bari Centre	54	30	84	52	11	63	96	37	75
Mymensingh Lions Club High School	157	X	157	17	00	17	11	X	11
All centres	291	177	468	74	52	126	15	11	26

It may be seen in Table 1 that only 26 per cent of the total enrolment of the adult illiterates—both male and female—were present on the days of administering the test, although the evaluation team went to the centres with prior information. This was mainly because of a Muslim festival immediately before the time of evaluation. The high attendance at the rural centre–Chaukaitala–bears testimony to this (the centre being located in an area where the problem of students going home for *Eid* did not arise).

The centres showing lowest attendance are situated in the town from where the adult learners left home for observance of *Eid*. Of the total percentage of attendance shown in Table 1, male attendance is higher than that of females though one city centre shows a better female attendance.

The achievements of the 126 neo-literates in reading, writing and calculation skills are shown in Tables 2, 3 and 4 respectively, in frequency and percentage terms. The mean of the achievement scores has also been calculated and, assuming the mean as indicative of fair achievement, it can be said that slightly more than 50 per cent of the neo-literates have achieved proficiency in reading, writing and calculation in a period of three months. The mean difference in the three skills is insignificant, which implies that the neo-literates are equally good in reading, writing and calculation. But Table 3 and Table 4 show the female neo-literates doing better than the menfolk in writing and calculation. This may be due to the good performance of women neo-literates of the Women's Rehabilitation Centre where the learners remain throughout the day and the educational facilities are better. Also, learning and earning go hand-in-hand in this centre.

Table 2. Frequency and percentage distribution of test scores in reading

Score	Both sexes		Male		Female	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
25	4	3	0	0	4	8
20–24	43	34	26	36	17	32
15–19	28	23	19	26	9	17
10–14	25	20	12	16	13	25
5–9	09	7	5	7	4	7
0–4	17	13	11	15	6	11
Total	126	100	73	100	53	100
Mean	15.2		15.0		15.5	

Literacy squad teachers

Twenty-two teachers are reported to have been engaged in the four literacy centres. Of these, one is a graduate, four have passed the SSC and 17 are non-matriculates. Only one teacher is trained in adult literacy.

Table 3. Frequency and percentage distribution of test scores in writing

	Both sexes		Male		Female	
Score	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
25	15	11	3	4	13	23
20–24	31	25	21	29	10	18
15–19	34	27	16	21	18	34
10–14	23	18	17	23	6	13
5–9	14	12	10	14	4	8
0–4	9	7	7	9	2	4
Total	126	100	74	100	53	100
Mean	16.1		15.0		18.0	

Table 4. Frequency and percentage distribution of test scores in calculating

	Both sexes		Male		Female	
Score	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
25	37	30	17	26	18	35
20–24	18	14	9	12	9	17
15–19	15	12	6	8	9	17
10–14	10	8	9	12	1	2
5–9	17	13	10	14	7	14
0–4	29	23	21	28	8	15
Total	126	100	72	100	52	100
Mean	14.7		13.1		16.9	

This trained teacher is employed in the Women's Rehabilitation Centre, Mymensingh.

Most of the teachers are aged below 30 and are otherwise unemployed. Most of them complained of the problems of getting books and lack of training and assistance from the agencies responsible.

Primers

Most of the adults read *Lekha Para*. Most centres also follow *Brother Bai* and other books available in the market. All the centres have distributed one primer for a group of two or three learners.

The general complaints about the primers are that they are not written in the traditional way, starting with words rather than letters. Some complaints have also been made against some pictures that do not represent the letters and are not understood by the illiterate masses, such as '[illegible]' for 'ঋ', '[illegible]' for 'য়', 'বাঁশঝাড়' for 'ঝ' or 'ওল' for 'ও'. One important suggestion from a teacher was that the National Anthem be incorporated in the primers.

Of the four centres three are housed in *pucca* (brick) buildings. The one situated in the rural area is held in an open courtyard. Classes for female illiterates are held during the daytime except at Sankipara Primary School.

The report and attendance register shows no drop-out. In two centres, local union council members and MPs take an interest. The other two centres are run by the Lions Club and the Relief and Rehabilitation Ministry.

Conclusion and recommendations

The sample test conducted in four centres of Kotwali Thana, Mymensingh, indicated that slightly more than 50 per cent of the neo-literates have acquired reading, writing and calculation skills. The test also showed that the performance of urban adult neo-literates is better than that of rural ones. Learning combined with earning gives good results.

This test has been useful in recasting and reconstructing the questionnaires and other procedural matters by taking lessons from the exercise that had been undertaken. The situation can improve if the following suggestions are considered:

1. Union councils and other Government functionaries should take active part in organizing and managing literacy centres by arranging primers, kerosene, chalk, pencils, slates and paper.

2. Only adult illiterates should be enrolled and given learning aids and children be taught in other ways.

3. Teachers employed in literacy squads should be given a short training course on how to teach primers methodically. This should be organized at the district level and the resource persons be drawn from the Institute of Educational Research (IER), Bangladesh Education Extension and Research Institute (BEERI) and the Academy for Fundamental Education (AFE).

4. For evaluation purposes, lists of literacy centres in the country are necessary and should be made available to AFE.

5. The number of teachers should be accurately ascertained and a supply of adequate numbers of primers ensured.

6. The supervisory staff should pay more visits and be more vigilant.

7. For improving writing skills, the necessary materials should be supplied.

8. In view of the demand by literacy teachers, the question of incorporating the National Anthem in the literacy primers should be considered.

9. The provision for writing by the learners in the primers should be avoided. This makes the book dirty and the chance of availability of blank space for writing by subsequent writers becomes less and less.

10. The spelling of joint letters should be uniform in all the primers.

11. Incentives should be provided for Literacy Squad Teachers.

It is assumed that all the problems that currently present stumbling blocks will eventually be solved. What is needed most now is for all of us to address ourselves to the task of removing illiteracy from the country.

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BURMA

by U Ye Aung

Background

The education system in Burma throughout the centuries was traditional monastic education in which all children, those of the kings and the ministers, as well as those of the middle class and the poor, received equal rights to free education and went to school together. The literacy rate was fairly high. If the Burmans alone were considered,the literacy rate was 71.7 per cent for men and 21 per cent for women.

The centuries-old monastic education was destroyed during the colonial years and later during the Japanese occupation, thus impeding literacy achievement among the masses of people, particularly the rural population.

After independence, an entirely new system of education evolved, geared towards expansion and improvement of education. A programme for the eradication of illiteracy was also launched and was called Mass Education. The Mass Education Programme resulted in failure due to the instability of the government. One other factor was the lack of interest by paid organizers who were unable to stimulate mass interest.

In order to overcome these difficulties, the Revolutionary Council of the Union of Burma assumed the responsibility as a historical mission, adopted the Burmese Way to Socialism and formed the Burma Socialist Programme Party. The political report of the Burma Socialist Programme Party Seminar of 1965 has a directive which says in effect "that every citizen is a literate is of prime importance for the successful building of the socialist system." This policy is again reflected in Article 152 of the constitution which declares: "Every citizen has the right to education."

In other words, one of Burma's main educational objectives is to eradicate illiteracy among the people.

Thus, the first Literacy Campaign was launched in 1965 in accordance with the policy of the Burma Socialist Programme Party. Since then, yearly campaigns have been conducted with increasing participation on the part of the masses. By 1977, the Literacy Campaign had started operations in 77 townships, and the achievements were commendable. In the

April 1978 programme, the movement spread to all the States and Divisions of the country, and a total of 14 townships, one from each State or Division, participated in the work.

Among those 14 townships, ten achieved total success in that they managed to completely wipe out illiteracy in their areas within about a year. Previously, it had been planned to extend the Literacy Campaign to only one township in each of the 14 States and Divisions every year. After the successful implementation of the 1978 Literacy Programmes, however, the people themselves began to express the wish that the national Literacy Movement be extended to more than one township in their respective State or Division annually.

In recognition of their positive attitude towards the campaign, the Burma Literacy Central Committee decided to extend the movement to as many townships as a particular State or Division deemed suitable for launching the Literacy Campaign.

In 1979, 16 townships in 12 States and Divisions began participating in the campaign. A decision was also made and necessary preparations carried out to extend the movement to another 24 townships in all the States and Divisions in the 1980 Literacy Movement.

By the end of 1980, all the illiterates in 131 townships of the country, with the exception of physically or mentally handicapped people and the immigrants from other townships, had become literate. In 1981, 65 townships were due to have participated in the Literacy Movement. Thus, by the end of 1981, people in 196 of the 314 townships in the country should have become literate.

Aims and objectives

The main aims and objectives of the Literacy Campaign in Burma are:

1. To help the illiterates learn to read and write,
2. To develop new ideas and promote more positive attitudes,
3. To promote a broader outlook on life,
4. To encourage illiterates to participate more actively in a more progressive community life,
5. To raise illiterates' productivity level and their standard of living,
6. To enhance the education level of the whole population,
7. To aid the economic and social progress of the country.

Target population and administrative structures

According to the 1953-54 Census of Burma, about 30 per cent of the population between the ages of 15 and 55 were illiterate. It was also observed that the majority of the illiterates belonged to the rural population represented by the peasants and the workers. Hence, the primary objective of the Literacy Campaign in Burma is to provide these people—both men and women—the opportunity of learning the three R's, which constitutes the ability not only to read, write and reckon, but also to have a wider perspective of the literacy campaign as a movement that is being geared towards their social and economic development.

The Burma Literacy Central Committee was formed with the Vice-Chairman of the Lanzin Youth Central Organizing Committee, who is also the Minister for Education, as Chairman. Under the Burma Literacy Central Committee are the three main Sub-Committees. These are the Organizing Sub-Committee, the Sub-Committee for Curriculum Development and Production of Adult Textbooks and Neo-literate Readers and the Sub-Committee for the Promotion of Reading Habits and Library Movement. Each State and Division has a Literacy Committee, under which are Township Literacy Committees. Under the Township level, there are sub-township, ward/village and group literacy committees.

The Burma Literacy Central Committee takes care of matters relating to national policy and the international literacy organizations through the Burmese National Commission for Unesco. It also reviews the effectiveness of literacy campaigns and directs and supervises the three Sub-Committees, which are responsible for (a) implementing the policy decisions, (b) communicating with the State/Division and Township Literacy Committees and (c) supervising the global literacy activities. The Literacy Committees at the State/Division level have two main functions. These are to act as a link between the Central and the Township Literacy Committees, and to give necessary help to the Township Literacy Committees.

The Township Literacy Committee is responsible for the literacy operations within the township and also for keeping in touch with the Central as well as the State/Division Literacy Committees. The multifarious functions of the three main Sub-Committees, the State/Division Committees and the Township Committees are given below.

Duties and functions of the Organizing Sub-Committee

These are as follows; to :

1. Organize seminars and discussions on the Literacy Campaign and to produce detailed work projects and papers for the campaign and send them to the yearly extended areas;
2. Carry out training classes at all levels in the extended areas;
3. Give on-the-spot visits and organize, discuss and give suggestions in the respective townships at suitable times;

4. Distribute Adult Readers (for learners) and teachers' guides;
5. Encourage and instil motivation on reading habits to those who have attained the reading skills in the areas where the Literacy Campaign had already been carried out;
6. Arrange the opening ceremony for literacy classes in new townships;
7. Organize the celebration of the anniversary of International Literacy Day every year;
8. Organize the voluntary students from the universities, colleges and institutes to take part in the national campaign and to collect data; to give pre-service training and to arrange for the distribution of voluntary teachers to the various respective base camps.
9. Make detailed arrangements for the volunteers including transport on their arrival and departure and lodgings;
10. Try and organize the voluntary students to form a magazine committee and to publish 'Echo' magazine;
11. Hold ceremonies at schools or at any suitable places to honour the voluntary students as well as the local teachers from the respective townships;
12. Commemorate the literacy campaign and to raise funds for the Central Committee by issuing postcards, calendars and bulletins;
13. Organize the publication of the adult literature and periodicals and to encourage the various townships to place orders on those publications; and
14. Arrange 'People's Victory' ceremonies in townships to be held in honour of the success of the literacy campaign.

Functions of Sub-Committees concerned with Curriculum Development and Production of Adult Textbooks and Readers

These duties and functions are as follows; to:

1. Publish and if necessary, review and revise existing textbooks for adult learners and teachers' guides;
2. Pay visits to various townships and give intensive training on methodology and organizational subjects;
3. Prepare and publish literature for those adults who have mastered the skills of reading (to prepare and publish neo-literate reading materials);
4. Edit, publish and collect books and periodicals for adults who have attained literacy;
5. Review the contents of the adult readers and periodicals and to edit carefully the difficulties that are involved in the edition; and
6. Evaluate the existing curriculum.

Functions of the Sub-Committee for Promotion of Reading Habits and Library Movement

These are to:

1. Draw up detailed plans and arrangements to promote reading habits and to establish libraries;
2. Encourage, visit and help township literacy committees to realize those aims;
3. Collect books and periodicals in all States, Divisions and Townships and distribute them to all campaign areas; and
4. Record the number of reading rooms and libraries in the various townships and village tracts and to constantly keep in touch with them to ensure that they remain open.

Functions of Township Literacy Committees

These committees have as their duties and functions to:

1. Organize and form various committees at the factories, mills and village tracts within the township;
2. Carry out organizational work effectively in the ward, village and town;
3. Assign every member of the Township Committee his or her part in various sub-committees;
4. Arrange and carry out a statistical survey and to record the number of illiterates at mills and factories, in the ward and village tract within the township;
5. Arrange and carry out a statistical survey and to organize a roster for local voluntary teachers to teach in the literacy classes;
6. Make necessary arrangements on the arrival of the volunteer students from the various universities, colleges and institutes and give them accommodation;
7. Give suggestions and solve possible problems systematically while keeping in touch with the literacy class within the township;
8. Organize reading rooms, reading circles and libraries at the mills and factories in the village tracts and wards; to collect and distribute reading material to those who have achieved reading skills and to encourage their reading habits so that they will retain skills;
9. Arrange discussion groups and meetings at least once a month;
10. Hold People's Victory ceremonies and functions at all levels in commemoration of the total eradication of illiteracy within ward, village and township;
11. Give necessary help in evaluation work.

Financial resources

From its inception, the Literacy Campaign has taken on the form of a mass movement. As such, the main impetus for this national endeavour comes not from any one single governmental department, nor the expenses from any government budget allocations. The impetus comes from the people themselves. In other words, the campaign may be said to be a movement 'From the people to the people, from the people for the people'.

Deeply involved in the Literacy Campaign are the working people represented by organizations such as the Peasants' Organization, Workers' Organization, Lanzin Youth Organization and various government departments. These social bodies and various governmental departments join in the movement and co-operate in collective leadership and assume individual responsibility.

Another noteworthy feature is that the literacy programmes are carried out on a voluntary basis. Field and observation visits made by training personnel, government officials and staff are considered as duty and their travelling and daily allowances are sanctioned by the Government. All other operational costs and expenses are met out of local funds.

Volunteer teachers and students from various educational institutions pay for their own fares and, while the literacy classes are being carried out at the selected townships and villages, they rely on the hospitality of the local people.

Apart from the textbooks and teacher's guide provided by the Burma Literacy Central Committee, teaching/learning materials such as pencils, slates, chalk, dusters and exercise books are obtained through the generosity of the community. Thus, the strategy of the Literacy Campaign in Burma may be characterized by four main features: (1) mass movement, (2) community participation, (3) voluntary basis and (4) local resources.

The Burma Literacy Central Committee distributes all textbooks free of charge. The Ministries of Education, Agriculture and Information are jointly responsible for the production of reading materials. Paper, ink, reading lamps and the like are partly funded by international agencies such as UNICEF, Unesco and foreign governments.

Curriculum and training programmes

In the initial stages of the Literacy Campaign in Burma, the teaching of the three R's to the adult illiterates was carried out using the textbooks prescribed for children in primary schools. It was discovered, however, that these textbooks were not suitable for the adult learners whose intelligence level was much higher than that of the children. Thus, the first curriculum for the adult learners was developed in 1968. Since then the Curriculum Development Committee has taken great care in deciding on the form and content of the adult reading texts.

Methods of curriculum development

The curriculum for the adult illiterates was developed according to the following criteria:

1. The subject matter of each lesson in the textbook need not be explained to the adult learners as they already have the necessary knowledge pertaining to their way of life.
2. The content of the reader must be such that it does not include anything that has no direct relationship with the everyday life of the adult learners.
3. The lessons must be written in simple sentences, and the vowel-consonant combinations must be introduced by stages.

The development of curriculum for the adult illiterates may be said to be a centralized programme as the Curriculum Development Committee, one of the three main Sub-Committees, is solely responsible for the development of curriculum and production of adult textbooks. The feedback obtained from the Campaign Committee is however carefully analysed before developing a curriculum. The Development of Curriculum for the adult illiterates may be regarded as a joint team effort by several Government Departments which work in co-operation with one another in developing the curriculum.

Testing and evaluation

The testing and evaluation of the curricula developed are made by the two main Sub-Committees: the Organizing Sub-Committee and the Curriculum and Textbook Sub-Committee under the aegis of the Burma Literacy Central Committee. The main concerns of this task are:

1. To identify the factors that facilitate or hamper the organizational structure and the implementation of the programmes in achieving the fullest mass participation;
2. To test the level of achievement of the literacy skills of the adult learners;
3. To provide the Burma Literacy Central Committee with the necessary data for reviewing, consolidating, extending and if necessary, revising the on-going programmes; and

4. To discover the strong and weak points of the textbook and the neo-literate literature and report on these to the Burma Literacy Central Committee and the two sub-committees concerned so that they may be able to take necessary measures regarding the reviewing and revising of the textbook.

Production of materials

The Burma Educational Research Bureau conducted several research studies on the teachability of the adult Readers, and on the basis of these results the Readers have been revised. A new adult Reader has been tested and submitted to the Burma Literacy Central Committee, and has now been used in the campaign this year. The Burma Literacy Central Committee produces the required number of books for each township, and these are distributed free of charge.

During the period of the campaign all campaign activities are broadcast through the radio in the form of news, radio plays, special literacy campaign songs and so on. The Burma Literacy Central Committee also sends out Literacy Campaign news to the newspapers, journals and magazines. Each township also produces its own bulletins, postcards and posters so as to motivate participation by the people.

Folk media, bulletins, newspapers and the like are developed by local experts, artists, song writers and poets. The media-software thus developed are used throughout the campaign operations. It is thought that the development of software media should best be carried out by the local experts as they know what material is most needed for the success of their work.

Training of personnel for the literacy programme

Because the campaign is a mass approach on a voluntary basis, a variety of means and resources are used for training different types of personnel. The Burma Literacy Central Committee and its sub-committees take sole responsibility for working out detailed programmes for training personnel. Some of the types of training programmes are mentioned below.

Regular training programme. At the Institute of Political Science in Rangoon, there are regular training courses for the Peasants' Organization members of the townships. There, peasants' affairs, including techniques of conducting literacy activities, are the major components of the training course. The literacy portion of the training course is conducted by the experts assigned by the Burma Literacy Central Committee. The Peasants' Organization members who have completed their training course are to take part as local organizers on returning to their townships.

Special training programme. After selecting new townships for launching the Literacy Campaign, the Burma Literacy Central Committee draws up detailed work plans which include special training courses for trainees at central, township, village tract and village levels.

The training instructors for the Central Training Course are the experts in methodology with field experience in organization. They are assigned by the Burma Literacy Central Committee. Selected personnel who are becoming township instructors are to undergo the Central Training Courses, after which similar training courses are run at subsidiary levels. The members of the literacy committees of each level and the volunteer instructors are to have their full-time training courses without fail.

Components of the curriculum and the training programme

Beliefs and attitudes towards literacy courses:

a) Reasons and responsibility for conducting the literacy activities;
b) Ways and means of conducting successful literacy courses.

Organization

a) Functions of the committees at different levels;
b) Duties of the committee members;
c) Organizational methods of conducting literacy classes in the mass approach.

Method of teaching the Adult Burmese Reader

a) Introduction and explanation of the method used;
b) Guidance for the teaching units and reading units 1 to 26;
c) Guidance for numeracy.

Teaching approach and motivation

a) Understanding the psychology and attitudes of the adults;
b) Understanding the needs and socio-economic problems of each individual and the campaign area as a whole;
c) Psychological approach and problem solving; and
d) Factors to motivate the adult learners.

Management

a) Characteristics of the literacy class:
  – Group teaching
  – Individual teaching
b) Fixation of time-table and place for the literacy class;
c) Organization, management and supervision of the literacy class;
d) Inventing and collecting local teaching aids, furniture and other necessities for the literacy class;

e) Preparation of records and reports; and
f) Explanation of communication line (with committees at different levels).

Role of voluntary teachers

a) Importance of local volunteers;
b) Voluntary students from universities, colleges and institutes;
c) Necessary preparations for the voluntary service; and
d) Functions and duties to be performed at the base camps.

The *Adult Burmese Readers* are used as the training materials, together with the handbook of a detailed programme on conducting literacy activities, and the handbook for volunteer teachers.

Evaluating the effectiveness of the training of teaching personnel. In order to succeed in making people literate, it is important to evaluate the training of teaching personnel. A continuous assessment of training programmes is carried out through base camp reports, discussions, seminars and workshops—both in the townships and central levels. Participating in these sessions are local volunteer teachers, representatives and committee members. Surveys on the achievement of the students, drop-outs, and the number of lessons taught during the set period are carried out to give constant feedback to the teachers and organizers. Based on these findings, modifications in the training programmes are made. For example, the modification of training techniques and training materials such as adult readers and the teacher's guidebook has been carried out.

The Literacy Campaign in Burma occupies a crucial role in the national education plan and the overall development plan of the country. Yet there is no separate department to implement the programme. With the co-operation and co-ordination of different ministries and the Burma Literacy Central Committee, however, the work of the literacy campaign has been a success. Voluntary teaching by students of the universities, colleges and institutes and all those who are literate has helped make the literacy movement a success.

The yearly increase in the number of volunteer teachers has improved the quality of learning. In fact many volunteers were not able to render their services because the number of volunteers exceeded the number of pupils in some areas. The participation of the community in providing such things as chalk, dusters, boards and lodging for teachers has made the work enjoyable and successful.

The co-ordination and co-operation of the sectoral departments have given much impetus to the literacy movement. For example, the Ministry of Transport and Communications has provided the volunteer teachers with travelling facilities while the health of the volunteer teachers is being taken care of by the Ministry of Health—which has mobile teams and primary health centres in the villages. The Ministry of Trade makes it possible for teachers and students to buy teaching aids and other necessary classroom equipment.

The Information Ministry keeps the general public as well as the teachers and students of the literacy movement informed through the newspapers and the radio. Radio plays and radio-talks are transmitted to keep the people informed about the literacy movement. All the activities mentioned above require careful planning by the Burma Literacy Central Committee.

International agencies such as Unesco and UNICEF have aided the programme by providing training opportunities abroad and contributing materials for the literacy movement. Foreign governments have also aided the literacy movement in various ways.

Problems and difficulties

Evaluation of the programme has indicated that although some of the literacy classes should have been conducted after work, while the peasants and workers are relaxing, the classes have had to be held during the day while the farmers and workers were at work, due to the lack of lighting facilities. This led to the interruption of their work, fewer teaching hours and less concentration by students.

In practice, it was found that people aged under 15 and over 55 also attended the literacy classes. The old people were slow learners and it was also noticed that they had poor eyesight. This situation created some difficulty in teaching and learning as most of the aged could not afford reading glasses. The children did not always concentrate.

Research surveys have indicated that relapse into illiteracy is due to lack of supplementary reading materials. This problem is caused by a shortage of paper, ink and printing facilities to produce more supplementary readers to cater for the needs of the community. The lack of teaching aids is also a problem. Lighting facilities for the literacy classes held during the night were often unavailable.

One other problem which needed immediate attention was the problem of teaching indigenous groups. Research findings show that the common text and the methodology used for the Burmese-language-speaking population were not suitable for the non-Burmese speaking groups. It was found that although these indigenous groups were able to read and write they were weak in comprehension. Special texts and teaching methodology would be needed for these people.

A technical drawback arising out of the nature of voluntary movement is the lack of adequate and properly (though not professionally) trained teachers and supervisors. Since the whole movement depends upon volunteer teachers who have only two weeks'intensive training, there is room for the improvement of teaching and supervision. The committees, not being permanent or full-time, cannot concentrate on the work of the training programmes.

Major outcomes

The major outcomes realized are the increased number of people in townships that have become literate; the enthusiasm of the States and Divisions to declare themselves literate; the increasing number of volunteer teachers annually; the success of mass participation; the satisfying positive attitude of the people toward the literacy movement; and the interest and enthusiasm shared by the people of Burma in the effort to eradicate illiteracy in the country.

As such the literacy movement in Burma may proudly be said to have mobilized all possible resources available. It has in fact promoted the active participation of people from all walks of life throughout the country. □

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CHINA

by Xu Xueju

Historical development and the present situation

During the early years of the revolutionary war, political and cultural education was given to workers and peasants of the liberated areas, as well as soldiers of the People's Liberation Army. Since the founding of the People's Republic in 1949 the Government has devoted much attention to the development of adult education and has made great progress in the past 30 years.

More than 130 million former illiterates have been taught to read and write in literacy classes; 38,800,000 workers and peasants have graduated from part-time primary schools; 3,330,000 from part-time middle schools, and 1,210,000 from part-time colleges. The Government has built a complete adult education system at primary, middle and higher levels.

During the disturbances of the 'Cultural Revolution', the adult education system was seriously damaged. After the downfall of the 'Gang of Four', and according to the instructions of the Central Committee of the Communist Party and the State Council, local governments at all levels gave more effective leadership to adult education and adopted many important measures to revive and develop adult education. Today half of China's factories and mines as well as other enterprises and businesses have begun cultural-technical education courses and more than 20 per cent of the workers and technicians take part in various classes. In rural areas, cultural and agricultural technology learning programmes are in progress. The 1979 statistics show that there are more than 28,190,000 people in various schools of all levels, including 860,000 in adults' colleges, 6,100,000 in adults' middle schools and 21,230,000 in adults' primary schools or literacy classes.

Types of schools

The general principles of running China's schools are to combine learning with production; take measures to suit local conditions; teach students in accordance with their aptitude; and maintain flexibility.

The types of schools for staff-workers are:

1. Schools run by enterprises and businesses.
2. Part-time schools for staff-workers run by full-time schools, especially full-time middle schools.
3. Local part-time universities run by education departments or labour unions.
4. Night colleges, correspondence schools and special classes for advanced studies run by some of the ordinary universities.
5. Two-year cadre colleges run by enterprises and businesses.
6. The Television University.
7. The 6–2 system in some of the factories and mines in which workers work six hours and take two hours off in study every workday. Some of the factories or mines adopt a 'four-groups-in-three-shifts' system, keeping three groups working and one studying in turn.

The types of schools for peasants' education are:

1. Literacy classes or groups set up by production teams.
2. Part-time primary schools or middle schools run by production brigades.
3. Part-time primary and middle school classes set up by full-time schools in rural areas.
4. Peasants' schools run by communities; these schools are often used as models to the whole community.
5. Technical schools to develop special technologies needed by the workers in workshops run by production brigades.
6. Full-time schools or work-study schools set up by communes.
7. Peasants' technical middle schools or technical colleges set up by counties.

Administrative systems

For the management of adult education, China has established a special system at each level of government, and provided full-time personnel to administer adult education affairs.

There is a Worker-Feasants' Bureau in the Ministry of Education, and Worker-Peasants' Department in each of the Bureaux of Education in the provinces and counties. There are also many teaching and research organizations set up by the provinces and counties to compile textbooks, study teaching methods and train teachers to meet the ever-increasing requirements of adult education.

For the staff-workers' education in basic units, China has formed Education Sections in factories and mines. In rural areas, guiding stations have been set up by communes and provided with one or more full-time personnel.

Adult education deals with all aspects of government, as well as with Labour Unions, Youth League, Women's Federations, scientific associations and other mass organizations. China mobilizes the whole society to make the undertaking a success. According to instructions given by the State Council, the Board of Worker-Peasants' Education has been set up by local governments at each level to mobilize the whole society, work out programmes and realize the goals of adult education.

The Central Broadcasting Television University (CBTU)

The Central Broadcasting Television University was opened in 1979 and is run jointly by the Ministry of Education and the Central Bureau of Broadcasting Affairs. The general headquarters is run by the State Government, and individual television-broadcasting universities are set up in provinces. Television-broadcasting teaching classes are set up by enterprises and businesses.

About 280,000 students were enrolled in 1979, including staff members, workers, cadres, teachers, and technicians. Some 140,000 were enrolled in 1980.

Today the CBTU specializes in science, with a schooling period of three years. The curriculum involves basic science and specialized courses of mechanical engineering and electrical engineering. China is planning to offer specialized courses in liberal arts in the near future, including Chinese literature, political economics, and economic administration.

Perspectives for future development

Adult education in the People's Republic has made rapid advances in recent years, but it still cannot meet the ever-increasing demand. There is still a 30-per-cent illiteracy rate among the young and middle-aged peasants, and 40 per cent of the young and middle-aged peasants have an academic level of primary school graduates. It is a very arduous task to raise the level of science and culture of the whole Chinese nation in order to suit the high standards of the 'four modernizations'.

The People's Republic of China is considering the perspectives for future development in adult education. The guiding principles are: proceed from actual conditions, seek truth from facts, do a solid job, and emphasize practical results.

In staff-workers' education, the goal until 1985 will be: 80 per cent of primary school graduates to achieve an academic level of middle-school graduates; more than 50 per cent of middle-school graduates to end up as technical secondary-school graduates; and some of the high-school graduates to become college graduates.

A further advance is seen in higher correspondence education. The students who will complete correspondence study in 1985 will be one-third of the total number of students now in ordinary universities and colleges.

In peasants' education, the general goal will be to raise the academic level of all the peasants to that of middle-school graduates.

In the implementation of the programme China is trying to:

- *Strengthen leadership by adult education;*
- *Formulate and revise the policy favourable to the consolidation and development of adult education;*
- *Improve the conditions for running schools.* □

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INDIA

by Dhirendra Singh

Introduction

Adult education in India is aimed mainly at the illiterate population between the ages of 15 and 35. The education imparted is to be a package, comprising acquisition of basic literacy skills, functional development and building up of social awareness. A variety of implementing agencies, both official and non-official, have been involved; and a number of programmes have been launched to achieve the success of the programme.

Rural Functional Literacy Project (RFLP)

One such scheme is the Rural Functional Literacy Project (RFLP). These are pace-setter projects fully financed by the Central Government but administered by the States. Under the scheme, projects of up to 300 Adult Education Centres with an average enrolment of 30 per centre are established. The geographical spread is confined to two development blocks (a block is an administrative unit for development activity and the average population is 100,000). The instructional period is about 300-350 hours spread over 9-10 months. There are a part-time instructor for each centre and full-time supervisors (one for 30 centres) and Project Officers (one for each project).

The aim is to establish one such project in each district (the basic administrative unit, population ranging from one million to two million). Other Adult Education Projects operated by State Governments or other agencies are expected to follow the pattern of the RFLP even though they may be smaller in size (as small as 30 centres).

The RFLP evolved out of the programmes of Farmers' Training and Functional Literacy started in 1967-68 and Non-formal Education started in 1975. The former programme had three distinct components: functional literacy, farmers' training and radio programmes. The responsibilities were shared by the Ministries of Education, Agriculture and Information and Broadcasting. The latter confined itself to the 15-25 age group. Its significant aspect was the emphasis on locally relevant and diversified content.

Case study

Presented below is a field study of one such Rural Functional Literacy Project. This case study was done in July 1980.

FIELD STUDY OF THE RURAL FUNCTIONAL LITERACY PROJECT IN MORWAH BLOCK, DISTRICT SAMASTIPUR (BIHAR)

The specific areas of study included in the Programme Schedule were as follows:

1. The project approach.
2. Creation of a favourable environment for the Adult Education Programme.
3. Involvement of the local community at the block and village levels, in the programme.
4. Problems of the field, including those encountered by field functionaries.
5. Status of learners' group and their level of awareness, functional development and literacy attainments.
6. Contribution of field functionaries and of other development departments in the work of adult education centres.
7. Personnel policy and allied matters.

The project approach. The project had followed the 'Compact Area Approach' as visualized under the programme which emphasized that, ordinarily, the area of a project should be coterminous with one or two development blocks in a district, and not spread throughout the district. Out of the 300 centres to be set up, only 126 had been established. Others were scheduled to be set up in the next phase after consolidating gains in the first phase. Out of the 126 centres established, 64 were for men and 62 for women. The priority which was to be given to women's education had been kept up. The instructional and supervisional responsibility for women's adult education centres had been given to women of the local rural areas.

Creation of environment. In the initial phases, the project management had to face a good deal of 'indifference' and even 'resistance' in several areas. A good response was however soon obtained. Various strategies were adopted:

a) Writing of catchy slogans on walls;
b) Distribution of specially prepared posters; and
c) Publication of a monthly Adult Education News (mostly for the workers).

In addition, village-level committees were formed and even person-to-person contacts were made.

Not much use however has been made of mass media such as field publicity units, radio broadcasts, press coverage and so on. There is ample scope for using the mass media. In addition, other mass contact methods such as organizing village meetings and special morning processions should also be used.

Community involvement. Knowing the effectiveness and necessity of community involvement, the project personnel had been making efforts to enlist the support of the local community. Resistance was met in sending female members of families to the centres. This was owing to traditional bias against sending females to adult education centres and secondly on the insistence that the instruction should be in the person's own home (which was not possible). The efforts of female adult education workers who went on a door-to-door campaign broke the resistance. The number of centres was also increased so that they were near participants' residences. The community also showed enthusiasm for building centres (even a thatched hut). Many female illiterates were heartened by the promise that, apart from literacy training, there was instruction in some handicraft also. Discussions at various occasions convinced the community that its contribution could be made in various ways; for example, the provision of chairs and boxes for the safe-keeping of materials used at the centres. In many centres such contributions were in evidence.

Field problems. Major field problems encountered were demands to include illiterate children below 15, demands for village libraries, disputes over selection of instructors and unhelpful attitudes of vested interests.

The village people were made aware of other Government programmes for school-age children and about the post-literacy programmes which were under formulation. Disputes over selection of instructors were solved by appointing non-controversial persons or by postponing the start of centres in some villages.

The overall impression was that (1) problems always arise, (2) these are of varying nature, and (3) that there are always solutions provided positive efforts are made and those involved at the field level in the implementation of the programme approach the community with tact and understanding.

Awareness and functional development. The teaching materials were supplemented by mimeographed circulars on subjects which would build awareness amongst participants such as Laws relating to minimum wages. Mimeographed notes in the form of 'Talking Points' for use of field functionaries had also been prepared by the State Directorate of Adult Education. The general impression however was that the main burden was still borne by the Education Department and that the other development departments had yet to realize their role or the importance of adult education for their own programmes.

Creation of learners' groups. There was little activity in this direction. It was felt however, that to make 'awareness' an effective ingredient of the Adult Education Programme, pressure must also be built from below at the grassroots level where the learners themselves are made aware not only of their rights and duties but also of the various facilities available to them by the Government through various development departments and agencies.

Personnel problems. These were varied. A few instructors were apprehensive about their future after the instructional programme was over. Others (especially female supervisors) had problems of touring and staying away from home.

Administrative arrangements and resource structure

Whether it is an RFLP or other project, there is a common administrative structure and resource base.

The Directorate of Adult Education at the Centre is the national resource agency. State resource centres have been set up in practically all states to decentralize efforts. These resource centres impart training to functionaries, develop reading and teaching materials (including post-literacy and follow-up materials).

Separate Directorates of Adult Education have been set up and there is provision for District Adult Education officers. Advisory boards have been set up at national, state and district levels.

An important feature is regular monitoring and evaluation. The appraisal of projects in the field is done by institutions of social science research and of higher education.

Conclusion

The field situations in different projects and areas often reveal varying problems. Effective field work in adult education is crucial for its success. The quality of the field functionaries, their attitude, approach and dedication to work are extremely important. It is necessary to impart proper training especially to the Project Officer. Active involvement of field functionaries of other departments is necessary to impart functional development and awareness amongst participants. There is a need for inter-departmental and inter-agency co-ordination, and committees should be set up for this purpose. Wherever they exist they should be activated. □

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INDONESIA

Anima Rosetha Samahati

Introduction

One of the efforts of community education (*Penmas*) is a programme of vocational skills apprenticeships.* This activity is designed to encourage and develop community talents so that the productive skills of learners can be put to use directly in the community. Apprenticeship is learning done through work. Some of the basic reasons why this is a valuable form of education are the following:

1. Skilled and productive people are needed to develop a community, especially in rural areas.
2. Natural resources, especially in rural areas, are waiting to be used.
3. The existing potential resources of the community are not yet utilized.
4. Large numbers of the community who are unemployed lack skills and knowledge to obtain work.
5. It is easy to organize people who intend to learn a certain skill in an apprenticeship programme within their village.

Objectives and supervision of the apprenticeship programmes

The apprenticeship programme described in this case took place in an auto repair workshop in Ciburuy village. The specific objectives of this programme were:

1. To gain a special skill in auto repairing, and
2. To be able to start working in order to fulfil basic daily needs.

The learner would be considered a skilled auto repairman if:

1. He is skilful in welding, duco painting, body work and engine repair;
2. He has the confidence to use the skill to earn his living and if he has the willingness to help others to gain the skill that he has learned.

The supervision and guidance of the programme was conducted at various levels, as described overleaf.

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* The author has chosen to write the entire article (a case study) on this topic.

Level	Organized by
National	Sub-Directorate of Community Pre-vocational Training
Provincial	Provincial Office of Community Education (*Penmas*) through programme development officer
District / Municipal	Directorate-General of Community Education, Youth and Sports Section through the sub-section of community education
Sub-District	Community Education Field Worker (*Penilik Penmas*)
Village	Penilik Penmas in co-operation with the facilitator of the *'Haur Geulis'* Learning Group.

Information on the locality

The Ciburuy village, where this case study was conducted, is a sub-district of the Cicurug district of Bogor, West Java. The area of Ciburuy village is 291,985 hectares. Administratively the village is divided into seven blocks; each block is divided into neighbourhood groupings within the village. The population is 7,432.

Description of the village. The distance from the village to the capital of the Sub-district is one kilometre; it is 21 kilometres to the capital of the district, and 130 kilometres to the capital of the province. The land is mostly flat and fertile. Average rainfall is 45 mm per year. Forty per cent of the community work in agriculture.

There are 22 public buildings in the village: four elementary schools with 682 students; one secondary school with 210 students; four *gadarsah* (religious) schools with 415 students; three *pesantren* (a religious boarding school for Moslems); ten mosques and one village hall. The education profile is as follows:

a) Elementary school certificate	2 900
Secondary school certificate	300
High school certificate	130
University degree	5
b) Drop-outs from elementary, secondary and high school	210
c) Jobless (age 15-45)	105
d) Illiterates (age 10-45)	216

Some non-formal education activities which have been implemented in the village include: basic education learning groups with 35 learners;

four groups of mothercraft centres with 32 learners; one apprenticeship with 24 learners; three learning groups in the fields of agriculture, fishery and livestock with 38 learners; and one mobile vocational training group with 18 learners.

The content of these learning activities includes:

a) Basic Education Learning Group: the learning packets A 1-20.
b) Mothercraft centre learning group: sewing, embroidery, flower arranging and cooking.
c) Apprenticeship group: auto-repairing.
d) Mobile vocational training group: welding, sprayer repair, lamp repair, sewing machine repair, radio repair and the like.
e) Agriculture course: modern technology in planting rice.
f) Fishery course: new methods in *Ikan Mas* (gold-fish) farming.
g) Livestock course: methods in caring for poultry, ducks, goats and water buffalo.

Description of the apprenticeship programme on auto-repairing

General. The *'Haur Geulis'* learning group is an apprenticeship group founded in 1975. The words are taken from the Sunda language and consist of the words *Haur*, which means yellow bamboo, and *Geulis*, which means beautiful: beautiful yellow bamboo. This term reflects the philosophy of the *Penmas* apprenticeship programme; that is, those who complete the programme will be able to apply and nurture their learning wherever they move to and also attract and guide the younger generation, especially drop-outs from the formal schools. This process should continue from generation to generation, with the number of skilled persons ever increasing like the single bamboo shoot that soon becomes 1,000 trees.

The supervisor of the learning group, the village head of Ciburuy and the Community Education Field Worker offered the following reasons for implementing the Haur Geulis apprenticeship programme.

1. Availability of drop-out youths from elementary, secondary, and high schools, who lacked the skills for obtaining jobs; there were 38 such youths in Ciburuy in 1973;
2. Availability of human resources who were willing, able to lead and teach the drop-outs a valuable skill; and
3. Availability of an adequate infrastructure to support the programme and a suitable environment to encourage its successful completion.

Because of these supporting factors, the leader of Block I of the village, who become the supervisor of the learning group, had proposed to establish a project in an auto-repair shop. The idea was supported by the other local leaders.

Preparation. After receiving encouragement from the village officials and informal leaders the following steps were taken in developing the programme:

a) The main target of the programme was drop-outs from elementary, secondary and high school. Thus the first step was to identify these drop-outs. Fifteen potential learners were identified.

b) If learners came from other villages, they had to meet three requirements: application with a letter of recommendation from their village head and a letter of permission from their parents, agreement to study for two years, and willingness to obey all the regulations.

c) Tuition and learning materials were free. The learners will be trained to become dedicated to the continued success of the apprenticeship programme. They will be provided with food, shelter and an honorarium. The amount of the honorarium depends upon the learners' daily accomplishments.

d) If an organization or institution enrols its members in the programme, it should pay a fee. The amount will depend on what kind of skill is to be studied.

At first, the supervisor of the learning group acted as instructor. He was helped by his two sons. After the first 15 learners finished their programme some of them were promoted as instructors in the workshop to teach new learners in the apprenticeship programme.

Learning place. This is an important factor in implementing the apprenticeship programme. The head of the village selected a piece of land of 180 square metres on the road connecting Sukabumi with Bogor at a cost of 40,000 Rupiahs. A simple building that could accommodate just one automobile was constructed at a cost of 15,000 Rupiahs. *

Learning materials. At the beginning of the programme the equipment available was very simple. The following tools were purchased (second-hand) for 55,000 Rupiahs:

1 set of open-ended wrenches (spanners)
1 set of box-end wrenches
1 steel saw
1 hammer
1 heater for patching tyres
1 pump

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* Approximately 635 Indonesian Rupiahs (Rp.) = one US dollar.

Learning fund and motivation. The initial budget of 100,000 Rupiahs was contributed by the organizer of the apprenticeship learning group using his separation pay from his job at a rubber plantation where he had worked for 32 years. Additional funds came from the output of the learning group.

'Learning yeast' is a term for the *Penmas* concept of motivation. Through mental stimulation and religious discussion the learners develop the self-confidence to successfully complete the course. Special sessions of this nature were held at night.

Learning process programme. The programme of instruction covered four areas: welding, duco painting, bodywork, engine repair. The following is the sequence of material covered in the learning programme:

1. Introduction to the equipment used in the workshop.
2. Instruction in the function of the equipment.
3. Introduction to the components of the machines and their functions.
4. Instruction in repairing and fitting the machines.
5. Instruction in welding.
6. Instruction in painting and hammering dents.

The learners were also taught a sense of responsibility so that they develop self-confidence and keep up the good name of *Haur Geulis* Learning Group. The lessons of the apprenticeship in auto-repairing can be divided into:

a) Auto repair shop skills including: auto, diesel, and motorcycle repair; welding, duco painting, and bodywork;
b) Mental attitude guidance: art appreciation, religious instruction, morality; State ideology (Belief in God, humanity, nationality, democracy and social justice);
c) General knowledge: administration and organization; entrepreneurship;
d) Physical fitness: football, table tennis, volleyball, chess;
e) Music: Melayu orchestra.

The learning method is largely by demonstration. Approximately 80 per cent of the lessons are demonstrations with only about 20 per cent lectures. The learner receives instructions, observes a demonstration, asks questions, thinks about the problem and then tries to solve it himself. In the apprenticeship learning process the learners repeat what the learning resource person demonstrates. The learners' activities are always monitored. The resource person immediately answers any questions and helps clear up misunderstandings. In the evenings the learners discuss the day's activities among themselves, so the process of apprenticeship within the *Haur Geulis* learning group takes place continuously day and night.

Schedule of apprenticeship activities. The organizer of the programme composed the following schedule of courses from which the learners could choose to study. If the learners intend to study all these courses, it will take them 24 months, working 7.5 hours per day.

Subject	Duration	Attendance	Hours per day
a) Welding	1 month	daily	7.5
b) Duco painting	3 months	"	7.5
c) Bodywork	1 month	"	7.5
d) Mechanics			
– diesel	6 months	"	7.5
– automobile	2 "	"	7.5
– motorcycle	12 "	"	7.5

The schedule of daily activities of *Haur Geulis* learning group is as follows:

Time	Activities	Remarks
07:00 – 08:00	Breakfast	Daily implementor
08:00 – 13:00	Practical study	Instructors and organizers
13:00 – 13:30	Lunch	Daily implementor
13:30 – 16:00	Practical study	Instructors and organizers
16:00 – 19:00	Free/dinner	Daily implementor
19:00 – 20:00	Discussion/ Lectures: religion, morality, self-awareness and patriotism	Organizer
20:00 – 20:30	Self-reliance/entrepreneurship	Organizer

Learners were given tasks of a practical nature to measure their performance. The tests were conducted by the instructor who would assign the learner a certain task such as cleaning a carburettor and disassembling and reassembling a motor. The results of the test were recorded by the resource person. If a learner showed no progress after being tested three times on the same problem he was given special assistance by the organizer.

Programme output

During the seven years the output of the programme can be classified into several areas:

1. *The learners*

   a) In the first class (1973-1976): there were 29 learners:

   - Three appointed as resource persons (instructors)
   - Twenty-three working at other institutions
   - Three opened their own workshops.

b) In the second class (1977-1978): there were 34 learners:
  - Four appointed as resource persons (instructors)
  - Twenty working at other institutions
  - Ten opened their own workshops.

c) In the third class (1979-Nov. 1980): there were 24 learners. Although they were learning, they were able to earn money by doing jobs for private individuals as well as for institutions that need to repair their machines.

2. *Resource persons (instructors)*

When the programme was first implemented there were two resource persons serving 15 learners. Thus the ratio between the resource persons and the learners was 1:7. At present there are eight resource persons and 24 learners; so the ratio is 1:3. There is a 100-per-cent improvement in service to the learners.

3. *Learning place*

In 1973 the learning place was able to house only one vehicle and there was no place for the learners to stay. Since 1978 it has been expanded to accommodate 15 cars. The work space is 15 x 12 square metres. A dormitory with dimensions of 4 x 2.5 square metres is now able to accommodate 20 people. A bathroom and rest-room are attached.

4. *Learning materials*

In 1980 some modern equipment was added. This equipment was obtained by the learners' own efforts as well as from aid from the Asian Foundation and Pioneers of Independence.

5. *Learning fund*

Starting with a capital of 110,000 Rupiahs, the apprenticeship programme now has a proper building and equipment. The programme has an average daily income of 15,000 Rupiahs or 450,000 Rupiahs per month. This money is used for:

a) Food. Two meals and one snack per day for 32 people (24 learners and eight resource persons) at 250 Rupiahs per person per day. This equals 8,000 Rupiahs per day or 240,000 Rupiahs per month.

b) Learning materials. Expenditure per month:

– note books (2 x 32 x 25 Rupiahs)	1,600	Rupiahs
– paper	900	"
– honoraria for three resource persons	30,000	"
Total:	32,500	"

The average expenditure per person is 1/32 x Rp. 32,500 = Rp. 1,015.63. So the total expenditure per person per day is Rp. 8,000 + Rp. 1,015.63 = Rp. 9,015.63 or Rp. 270,469 per month. The other expenditure is for maintenance of equipment and the purchase of materials used in the practical learning experiences such as gas and paint. Furthermore each learner receives expense money of up to 200 Rupiahs per day, depending on the workload. The honorarium for the instructors is 10,000 Rupiahs per month to which is added incidental income for repair work done for others.

6. *Learning yeast (motivation)*

Among the things that motivate the organizer and resource persons as well as the learners are included:

a) visits from government officials, persons from private enterprises and foreign visitors.

b) aid in the form of equipment and consultancy from government officials as well as from private enterprise.

c) the improvement of daily income.

The success of the apprenticeship programme of the Haur Geulis learning group has resulted in the creation of other new apprenticeship learning groups in Ciburuy and in other places in Serang District. The learners who have completed the programme have demonstrated that they can find work in the government or privately and thereby improve their quality of life.

Follow-up

Three major follow-up activities have been conducted for graduates of the *Haur Geulis* learning group:

Technical assistance. The organizer of the learning group supervised all learners who have been able to start a new workshop. They were observed and supervised. The organizer has loaned them equipment as well as assisted them in solving problems. Although the learners at first have worked by themselves, they remain under the supervision of the organizer. In that way there is direct communication between the ex-learners and their headquarters (*Haur Geulis* Learning Group).

Employment services. Graduates from the programme have been helped to find governmental as well as non-governmental jobs. When the learners get a job, the Haur Geulis Learning Group continues to give direction and guidance to the ex-learners as needed.

Forming an association of graduates. The learners who successfully complete the programme form an association so that they can periodically gather to discuss mutual problems faced in their work and thereby help to increase each other's level of competence.

Plans for future development. Because of the increasing number of learners wishing to join the Haur Geulis Learning Group, especially in auto-repairing, the following plans have been made for developing the group further:

1. To open new branches of the learning group in the surrounding area. The manager or organizer for the new branch will be an ex-learner who has been proved qualified in automobile repairing.
2. Renovation of the existing place to accommodate more learners.
3. Improving the quality of apprenticeship training especially in the area of self-enterprise and forming a tolerance among the learners by inviting skillful people from outside of the group.

Supporting factors and obstacles in implementing the programme

Supporting factors:

a) availability of qualified resource persons
b) availability of equipment
c) a strategic learning place
d) support from the local community
e) technical assistance from community education field workers (Penilik Penmas)
f) attention from governmental as well as non-governmental agencies
g) grants in kind or equipment from the Asia Foundation and Pioneers of Independence.

Obstacles:

a) lack of adequate classroom space for lecture and discussion
b) absence of certain equipment
c) shortage of dormitory rooms. The existing dormitory is able to accommodate 20 people. But on average seven people try to register for the programme each month while only three people leave. So the rest have to wait for the next turn.
d) a satisfactory method of instruction that accounts for individual differences has not yet been found. The difference in ability among learners is demonstrated by the fact that some learners finish the course in *less* than two years whereas others require much *more* than two years to complete it.

e) Some members of the community consider the learners to be common, unskilled labourers, which dampens the spirit of some learners.

Conclusion

A great deal of useful information about the nature of learning activities in the form of apprenticeship programmes can be drawn from the experience of the Haur Geulis Learning Group. The conclusions may be summarized as follows:

1. The apprenticeship programme has been able to produce people sufficiently trained in a certain skill as to enable them to easily find a job.
2. The learners are able to earn money while studying.
3. The follow-up support for the graduates of the programme is not difficult because they can immediately apply their skills either by working for themselves or for someone else.
4. The programme is easy to co-ordinate because the learners during the process of learning continuously meet with the resource person and organizer at the same place and at the same time.

The following are some areas that need improvement to insure the continued success and progress of the programme:

1. The system of management of the programme–especially in management of the budget–maintenance of equipment and in communication with other departments, with the Directorate of Community Education and with other outside agencies.
2. Long-range plans for the continued use of the graduates as learning resource persons (instructors) in other programmes.
3. Continuous support and development of the programme to insure its continuity. □

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JAPAN

by Koichi Igarashi

Changes of social conditions

In the course of rapid industrialization and economic progress, Japan has undergone remarkable changes in social conditions. These changes have influenced adult education in Japan. The major changes may be listed as follows:

1. Rapid increase of the elderly caused by the decline in both birth and mortality rates.
2. Changes in family size; the increase of one- and two-generation families and the decrease in the number of children per couple.
3. Increased leisure time owing to the decrease in working hours and the reduction of domestic chores by the use of time-saving devices.
4. Concentration of population in the urban areas and the urbanized way of living throughout the country.
5. Birth of an information-saturated society brought about by the high development of mass-media and increased use of computers.
6. A rise in the people's educational backgrounds; nowadays, 94 per cent of the population of the same age are enrolled in upper secondary schools and 37 per cent advance to higher educational institutions.
7. Growing needs of the people to catch up with new knowledge and technology.

Two aspects of adult education

Adult education in Japan has two aims. One is the betterment of the overall quality of life, and the other is the improvement of vocational ability and skills.

With regard to vocation, adult education is largely conducted in the form of on-the-job training in the private and public enterprises. These enterprises have been making every effort to improve on-the-job training. The effectiveness of such training is widely recognized in Japan.

For the workers in general, the Ministry of Labour and prefectural governments run public vocational training centres which offer various courses to provide vocational knowledge and skills at all levels. As of 1978, 234,000 were enrolled in 415 public training centres.

Outside the formal education system, there are educational institutions called 'miscellaneous schools' which offer courses for vocational training as well as practical knowledge and skills. These courses cover a wide variety of subjects. The courses for vocational training include radio-TV apparatus, commerce, typewriting, book-keeping, beauty care and nursing. Practical courses include foreign language conversation, music, flower-arranging and dressmaking. The requirement for admission to most of the courses is completion of lower secondary schooling or upper secondary schooling. The duration of the courses varies. A short course lasts for three months, but the typical length is a year or longer.

In 1976, a law was promulgated to create, out of miscellaneous schools, a new category of educational institution called 'special training schools' which satisfied the prescribed level and scale of systematic instructions. In 1979, there were 2,387 special training schools attended by 416,438 students and 5,508 miscellaneous schools with the students numbering 770,959.

Many universities and colleges offer extension courses dealing mainly with general education.

The municipal and prefectural governments establish and maintain citizens' public halls, libraries, museums, youth centres, women's study classes for adults, women, youth and the aged. These classes offer courses mainly of general education and practical knowledge and skills.

Adult education and women

Changes in family life, specifically, the prevalence of the 'nuclear family' and the use of time-saving devices, have reduced domestic chores and stimulated the desire of housewives to study and work after having completed child-rearing.

In 1977, 738,000 women attended adult education classes organized by local boards of education, accounting for 70 per cent of the total attendance. The main topics include English conversation, Japanese painting, pottery, gardening, book-keeping, beginning management and local history.

In 1978, 34,000 women's classes were organized by local boards of education and women's organizations which were attended by 1,556,000 women. The main topics are household affairs and family life, child-care and education, civic matters, health and safety, practical skills and vocational guidance.

New demand for continuing education

More diversified, sophisticated and specialized courses are called for. Newspaper companies, broadcasting companies and other private entities, mostly in big cities, have organized these courses to meet the demands. The main topics dealt with in such courses include vocational guidance, household affairs and family life, general education and artistic skills. In 1971, 366,000 attended these courses; of these 70 per cent were women.

The Japan Broadcasting Corporation (NHK) broadcasts general educational TV and radio programmes including foreign language courses. These programmes are used in adult education in the form of individual study as well as class study.

An increasing number of universities and colleges offer extension courses. In 1978, 313 courses were organized by 175 universities, and 120,000 attended. The topics of such courses are education, environment and pollution, politics, economics, agriculture, horticulture, foreign language, sports, and others.

In response to the demand for more specialized knowledge, a few prefectural and metropolitan boards of education have already organized systematic and specialized courses in collaboration with the universities, colleges and upper secondary schools.

Restoration of communal ties

As a result of industrialization and urbanization, solidarity among inhabitants of communities has been weakened remarkably both in urban and rural areas. Ways and means to re-establish and reinforce solidarity in communities are being sought.

The municipalities establish citizens' public halls as a symbol of communal ties. The halls, run by local boards of education, offer various regular courses, encourage citizens to organize study groups and athletic clubs and hold lecture meetings. The local governments also establish museums to preserve and exhibit cultural heritages of each district. The local boards of education encourage their citizens to learn traditional music and dance, to restore festivals once abandoned and to collect and study folklore.

Volunteer activities such as helping the aged and the handicapped are encouraged. For this purpose, the local boards of education offer courses for potential volunteers. The local boards also recruit and register voluntary leaders for study groups and athletic clubs. The lists showing their special abilities and times when they are free are kept in citizens' public halls and any group can ask volunteers to help. This system is called 'the bank of human resources'.

Participation in life by the aged

In 1979 the ratio of the age group over 65 to the whole population was 8.9 per cent and it is estimated that it will increase to nearly 19 per cent by the year 2020. Efforts are being made to prepare for the aging society by finding suitable jobs for those who can work, meanwhile improving the pension system and the medical service system.

Adult education courses for the aged are organized in order to increase mutual understanding between generations, and to enable them to understand the changes of society, study liberal arts, maintain and improve health and learn and perform traditional arts. In 1979, 22,000 classes for the aged were offered by the local boards of education and 1,080,000 attended.

To encourage the aged to participate in the activities of the community, special programmes are organized by the educational boards to utilize knowledge and skills they possess. Talented elderly people are recruited and participate in training courses to become good leaders in social education activities. After finishing the courses, these old people become lecturers of various classes according to their talents and abilities. In classes for children, the aged teach children how to make traditional toys from wood, bamboo and paper. In classes for women, the aged teach the preparation of traditional dishes. In 1978, 178 local boards of education organized these programmes and 1,400 old people became lecturers.

Role of the Ministry of Education, Science and Culture

In order to promote adult education, three factors are needed: facilities, specialists and leaders, and educational activities.

1. Regarding facilities, the Ministry of Education, Science and Culture has set up standards for establishing and operating citizens' public halls, libraries and museums. By granting subsidies, the Ministry encourages the local governments to establish these facilities. In 1979, 409 citizens' halls were built by the municipalities and 49 libraries and 17 museums by prefectural and municipal governments. Because of the great need for the facilities, many local governments are planning to increase the number and improve the quality of such facilities.

2. Regarding specialists and leaders, the Ministry regulates the qualifications of key personnel in adult education by law. The Social Education Law stipulates basic requirements for social education officers, who

are assigned in local boards of education to give advice and guidance to those who are engaged in social education. According to the Social Education Law, boards of education of prefectures, cities, towns and villages are required to have social education officers. In 1978, there were 6,059 social education officers. Out of these, 1,050 were officers delegated to municipal boards of education by prefectural boards receiving subsidies from the Ministry of Education, Science and Culture.

The qualifications for librarians are regulated by the Library Law and those of museum staff by the Museum Law. These qualifications can be obtained by the completion of courses in universities. They can also be acquired through special training courses (in the case of museum staff this is proven by passing the national examination).

To improve the quality of personnel engaged in adult education, local boards of education organize on-the-job training courses.

The Ministry of Education, Science and Culture subsidizes the partial cost of these training activities carried out by prefectures. In addition, the Ministry runs training courses at its own institutes such as the National Training Institute of Social Education, National Women's Education Centre and National Youth Centres.

3. Regarding activities, the Ministry encourages local boards of education through subsidies to set up model classes or to try new programmes. In 1979, the Ministry subsidized 13,984 classes and provided subsidies of 293,389,000 yen for the programmes promoting voluntary activities for youth, women and the aged.* The Ministry also supported 32 prefectures in diffusing information on adult education in each district through television broadcasts and distribution of booklets.

From the Ministry's point of view, the main objectives to be accomplished are the diversification of opportunities, the improvement of the content of adult education and the systematic dissemination of more detailed information through various media. The Ministry began to provide subsidies to several prefectures for the construction of integrated social education centres. The centres conduct practical studies on curricula and teaching methods, organize training courses for key personnel and collect and distribute information.

The Ministry is planning to establish a new university which will make higher education more accessible for working youth and adults by making use of TV, radio, printed teaching material and schooling. This university, when it is founded, will make a significant contribution in enhancing the quality of adult education.

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* Approximately 230 Yen = one US dollar.

The Ministry's Central Council for Education has been deliberating on life-long education in Japan since late 1977, taking into account the recent social changes, the educational functions of the family and community as well as schools, and personal goals in each stage of the life cycle. The Council has recently made recommendations regarding fundamental policies to further adult education in Japan. □

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LAO PEOPLE'S DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC

by Phansy Abhay

Adult education programme

The resolutions of the Central Committee of the Ruling Party of the Lao People's Democratic Republic have given high priority to the spread of adult education in order to eliminate illiteracy among party members, government officers, soldiers, workers and village board members. The first stage of this literacy drive was completed by the end of 1980. During a speech on International Literacy Day, M. Phoumy Vongvichith, the Vice-Prime Minister and Minister of Education, Sports and Culture, said that party members, workers and others must promote their political awareness and competence in science and technology, increase food production and improve national defence and reconstruction.

Since liberation the people have tried to organize literacy classes. They believe that those who can read and write should teach the illiterate as a part of national reconstruction. The time, venue and content of the literacy classes are all very flexible so as to suit local needs. The classes are organized at any convenient time, in homes or in pagodas and the materials are mainly self-instructional. Sometimes children teach their illiterate parents at home. The government allows its employees study time which adds up to one working day a week; this is regarded as paid leave.

In addition there is a mass organization which motivates the people to engage in literacy activities. The instructors are chosen from among members of the organization, government officers, students, teachers and monks.

The instructors are paid an allowance by the government and the people in the village provide them with food and necessary materials. Once the task assigned to them has been completed, the local organization tries to employ them in the local co-operative or sends them to be trained as primary school teachers or in the professional schools.

Structure of administration

In implementing the above programme, the Ministry of Education, Sports and Culture has the sole responsibility at the central level. All activities are carried out by the Department of Adult Education and Complementary Education, however. This department undertakes extensive research to direct such programmes in line with government policy. It is also responsible for planning and establishing the curriculum for the programme, and for instructing and providing books and other facilities. Apart from these, there is also an organization of the party central committee to eliminate illiteracy and promote 'complementary' education at the national level, in which the president of the Lao People's Democratic Republic is the leader and the Minister of Education, Sports and Culture his deputy. Many members of the central committee in charge of various government bodies are also involved. This organization is also responsible for the national effort to combat illiteracy and has mobilized all forces in the central party and the mass organizations to completely wipe out illiteracy among Lao people as quickly as possible.

At the provincial level, the provincial service of education, sports and culture takes full responsibility for this programme and at least one provincial board member is in charge. Within the district there is also at least one district board member in charge and at the local level and in various education institutions, there must be at least one person holding full responsibility for the elimination of illiteracy in his or her own area. Besides these various organizations, there are also general organizations to eliminate illiteracy at the grass-roots level.

Every ministry, government department, mass organization, factory, military and police headquarters, and education institution also has a responsibility to help to eliminate illiteracy. This programme can be implemented in many ways to suit local peculiarities and conditions.

After finishing the literacy programme, complementary education should start right away by organizing these three types of boarding school:

- Government boarding schools for giving complementary education to cadres of the centre level right down to the district level.
- Complementary schools for peasants and workers at the central and provincial levels.
- Schools for young people from ethnic minorities of the provincial and district levels.

Literacy and complementary education in mountainous areas

This is a difficult but solvable task. Many ethnic minorities have already become literate; for example the Lao Theung people at Paklong Village in the province of Sayaboury. As a result, they enjoy better living standards and have improved their food production. Their old superstitious beliefs have been abandoned and their knowledge of hygiene has improved. For instance, a superstitious belief of the Lao Theung was that their secret ceremonial dance can only take place at one place on a specific day. If anyone performed in a different place or on a different occasion, a tiger would come and eat him. This belief is no longer common.

To achieve the country's purpose, primary schools have to be built in every village; four or five youths from each village should be called for schooling. These boys can then take turns to combat illiteracy in their village and to improve their own education. When all youths in the area have completed their primary schooling, a boarding school for complementary education has to be set up immediately.

Expenditure on labour and equipment in setting up a school is partly covered by the government budget and foreign aid. The people provide the labour for construction of the school building, tables and chairs, however.

The complementary education programme is a national effort in which the people of all departments and institutions have to be involved. Therefore, every person has joined in and takes responsibility to make the programme a success.

In implementing this programme several problems have surfaced:

- The budget for initial expenditure on the literacy and complementary education programmes is inadequate.
- Materials such as paper, pen, ink, gasoline, transportation and other facilities in implementing the project are in short supply. ☐

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MALAYSIA

NON-FORMAL EDUCATION

by John Doraisamy

Background

Economic position. The diversified and abundant resources of Malaysia, coupled with a strong infrastructure, balanced industrialization and a sound financial policy, have enabled the country to sustain a rapid growth rate. Despite this impressive growth, national wealth has not been evenly distributed. Accordingly priority is given to a redistribution of income through the New Economic Policy (NEP). This was adopted in 1970 to increase the Bumiputras' (Malays and other indigenous people) share of capital to 30 per cent by 1990, compared with 2.4 per cent in 1970.

Malaysia is steadily moving on to greater diversification. In 1981 it is estimated that the distribution of the work force will be:

– Agricultural sector	44 per cent
– Manufacturing sector	14 " "
– Tertiary sector	42 " "

The trend is clearly toward greater opportunities in all sectors of the economy. At the same time formal-and non-formal education have a role to play in providing the variety of skills needed to sustain greater economic growth. The Bintulu natural gas and petro-chemical project, for example, involves an investment of 2.4 billion dollars and will employ a very large managerial staff as well as skilled workers. It is expected that in the forthcoming Fourth Malaysia Plan there will be substantial resources allocated for the 'training dimension', including non-formal education. In any case the expenditure on formal education represents about 22 per cent of total public expenditure.

Adult and non-formal education

Further Education Classes (FEC). The Further Education Classes were started in 1958, following a recommendation of the Razak Committee on Education. The FEC is the best example of 'second-chance education' in Malaysia. The system consists of evening classes in selected centres and centres for people who are:

1. Over-aged for regular school;
2. Unable to continue their education in regular schools; and
3. Employed but wishing to improve their qualifications.

In-service education for teachers. Although up to now the Ministry of Education has not insisted that serving teachers should attend in-service courses periodically during their career, there are several programmes which teachers attend.

According to an official of the Ministry of Education the main objectives of in-service education for teachers are:

1. To improve the language skills of teachers in Bahasa Malaysia as a medium of instruction and English as a second language;
2. To increase the academic and professional knowledge and experience of trained teachers in various subject disciplines;
3. To orient trained teachers towards new developments in teaching methods and techniques;
4. To equip teachers with sufficient knowledge and skills to enable them to play effective roles beyond classroom instruction; and
5. To provide training in educational administration and management for head teachers, school organizers and administrators.

The universities. The oldest university in Malaysia is the University of Malaya at Kuala Lumpur. It developed as a division of the erstwhile University of Malaya at Singapore which was founded in October 1949. As a result of increased demand for higher education and the rapid political changes taking place both in Malaya and Singapore it was decided to open a separate division at Kuala Lumpur in 1957. In 1962 the University of Malaya was launched as a separate entity.

The Carr-Saunders Commission on University Education which recommended the establishment of the original University of Malaya devoted an entire chapter in its report to the need for an extra-mural studies department modelled on British practice. The University had been so preoccupied with expanding its facilities for increasing numbers of students, however, that no planning was done for extra-mural studies. Limited resources also meant that education for full-time undergraduates had to take precedence.

The Universiti Sains Malaysia has run a successful off-campus programme for ten years. Students who are all adults with full-time occupations take five years for the normal three-year degree course. Students spend their first-to-fourth years studying at home but the final year must be spent on full-time study at the University itself. In addition, students are required to attend tutorials for three weeks in December during the first four years also at the University. So far this is the only example in Malaysia of a 'distance learning system'.

Generally the universities attempt to discharge their obligation to the community by:

1. Providing facilities for seminars and public lectures organized by professional and learned bodies;
2. Publishing books, journals and texts of inaugural lectures and other original contributions to knowledge;
3. Holding exhibitions of projects or work done by staff and students;
4. Staging cultural performances or providing facilities for such performances; and
5. Organizing film festivals for the public with the co-operation of accredited diplomatic missions.

Students' unions and student societies are active in some forms of non-formal education programmes for the benefit of rural people and plantation workers. In recent years such programmes have included free language classes for school drop-outs, and civics classes for women. Some effort has been made to try to bring about attitudinal changes among rural people so that they will get rid of negative attitudes to education of their children and vocational choice. Most programmes of non-formal education for rural dwellers are conducted during the long vacations of the respective universities. For many university undergraduates this is their first meaningful contact with rural people and their problems.

Vocational, technical and professional education

A well-known category of adult education relates to programmes of instruction in vocational, technical and professional competence. It is in this branch of non-formal education that we find very significant developments as well as a bewildering range of institutions. Following a Unesco definition, this category of non-formal education comprises programmes for preparation of an adult for a first job, or for a new job. It includes schemes of further education for an adult to keep him up-to-date on new developments in his occupation or profession.

Private-sector education. With the high rate of growth which has been a feature of the Malaysian economy for several years now, there is a great demand for a variety of business skills, particularly management skills.

Two institutions whose programmes are widely patronized are the Malaysian Institute of Management (MIM) and the National Productivity Council (NPC). The MIM is a private body depending on private firms for financial support. The NPC, however, is a statutory corporation. Between them they make available a variety of courses, seminars and publications which are aimed at developing executive competence. Courses are held every year in subjects such as salesmanship, personnel management, advertising, company law and taxation, industrial relations and report-writing.

The private sector plays an important role in providing education and training in basic skills in the engineering, agricultural and commercial fields. Companies train, retrain and update the skills and knowledge of their own employees. Some have specific apprenticeship schemes while others may secure places for promising employees in public training establishments.

A unique example of non-formal education is carried out by the Incorporated Society of Planters (ISP), the leading professional organization for managers of rubber, oil palm and coconut plantations. The planters study various subjects that are relevant to their profession and appear for a written examination as well as an oral examination. Those who are successful are awarded the Planters' Diploma. The ISP is a private body and the diploma, although it does not enjoy any particular status in government circles, is a recognized qualification in the plantation sector, which is the very cornerstone of the Malaysian economy.

Commercial schools. There are numerous private establishments in the larger towns of Malaysia that provide tuition and training in commercial skills that are in great demand in Malaysia today. In recent years, many such private institutions have sprung up, even in small towns. This underscores the ever-present preference for white-collar jobs in business establishments as well as the ready market for individuals with practical skills. The students are drop-outs from secondary schools and employees seeking to better their qualifications. With the increasing importance of Bahasa Malaysia even in the private sector, many of these commercial schools provide *Trengkas*, or Bahasa Malaysia shorthand, among other traditional subjects.

In spite of the expansion of vocational education in the formal school system, there is a need for this kind of private institution. One explanation is that many students, having done poorly in the academic type of public examination, may decide to concentrate on commercial skills to find work. Rural girls may prefer to attempt a study of commercial subjects rather than going to a factory to take up blue-collar employment.

Private institutions and vocational courses. There is a large number of small, private and full-time business establishments that provide practical training and instruction for young women who wish to acquire a skill.

There are very wide differences in the size and quality of training of these 'schools', 'academies' and 'institutes'. One comes upon these centres of non-formal education in the most unexpected places—in back lanes or in rented space in large buildings. A 'ladies tailoring institute' may have only 20 students learning about cutting and measuring from an elderly lady who owns the establishment. These establishments may be registered as sole proprietorships.

Inevitably the courses of instruction are highly personalized. They serve a need felt in the community to provide young female school drop-outs with some skill that they can put to use. The girl who has followed a course of instruction in tailoring may work at home on a contract basis, supplying small shops and stores with children's garments, or she may be asked to sew on buttons or put the finishing touches to curtains and cushions. Although the most common of these establishments are tailoring schools, one also comes across numerous training institutions that advertise courses of instruction for the following occupations: telephone operator, airline ticket clerk, fashion model, commercial artist, hairdresser and salesperson.

Public sector institutions. Mention must be made of the National Institute of Public Administration (NIPA) which is responsible for in-service training for all grades of civil servants. The modular system of instruction is usually followed. Apart from public servants the NIPA also caters for the educational needs of wives of foreigh service officers. They are required to attend courses in Malaysian economics, the national constitution, international affairs and rules of protocol.

It would take too much space to list even a representative cross-section of the institutions which are concerned with pre-service and in-service courses for government servants. Suffice it to say that the number is increasing as more emphasis is laid on proper training, while the need for refresher courses is also recognized. The following is a random list to indicate the variety of institutions that can be classified as training institutions in the public sector:- Railway Training School, Telecoms Training School, National Merchant Marine Academy, Fire Department Training School. The statutory bodies also have their own permanent training institutions such as: Central Bank Training School, Electricity Board Training School, Rubber Smallholders Centre, Farm Mechanization Training Centres and Fishermen's Training School.

Industrial Training Institutes (ITI). The Industrial Training Institutes provide trade training of three types; namely:

1. *Preparatory trade courses.* These are meant for youths above 15 years of age who wish to specialize in the engineering trades. The duration is 22 weeks.
2. *National Apprenticeship Scheme.* This is a 55-week course for workers who are sponsored by employers in the private as well as public sector.
3. *Skill Upgrading courses.* These are aimed at improving the skills of workers in industrial establishments.

The aim of the ITIs of which there are now three in Peninsular Malaysia, is to achieve trade standards established by the National Industrial Training and Trade Certification Board, as well as satisfying the requirements of individual employers. They also aim to enhance the job prospects of school leavers and unemployed persons by providing systematic training in basic skills at job entry level. The ITIs have developed very close contacts with industry and are able to ensure that the quality of their courses will be such that the youth completing training can find work.

Ministry of Youth, Sport and Culture. The Ministry has programmes concerned with technical, vocational and leadership goals.

The National Youth Development and National Pioneer Corps programmes are carried out at the Dusun Tua Centre. The former provides a form of training designed to inculcate discipline as well as civic consciousness. The latter is more skill-oriented.

The National Youth Development Corps was established in 1969 to provide youths between the ages of 16 and 25 years with disciplinary training with a view to instilling in them a sense of loyalty to the nation and to broaden their outlook and perspective on public affairs. Each batch of trainees consists of 1,000 youths and their training course lasts three months. After completing the training they are directed to sources of employment.

The National Pioneer Corps was established in 1966 to provide training for unemployed youths between the ages of 16 and 25. The duration of training is 18 months and the trainees may choose one of the following areas: agriculture, masonry, carpentry, motor mechanics, radio and television repair, tractor driving.

Trade Unions and non-formal education. Although there is as yet no organization in Malaysia comparable to the Workers Education Association in the United Kingdom or Australia, almost all unions have an Education Committee. In addition the Malaysian Trades Union Congress (MTUC) provides some financial support and organizes its own seminars and courses for affiliated unions. The official aims of trade union and workers education programmes are:

1. To help the worker to acquire a better understanding of his work, environment and social objectives;
2. To promote the development of a worker's natural instinct and potential for the advancement of his career; and
3. To instil in the worker an active interest in the social, economic, educational, cultural and political life of his country.

The MTUC employs an Education Officer, who is a qualified and experienced teacher on leave from the Ministry of Education for a period of two to three years. He works closely with the unions and is often called upon to provide resource personnel as well as materials for affiliated unions holding courses and seminars.

Some university departments' academic staff participate in seminars for workers. The usual method of promoting non-formal education, as far as trade unions are concerned, is through week-end residential courses. Typical courses deal with industrial relations law, negotiating techniques, elementary economics, or social security benefits. Seminars may cover wider themes.

The Transport Workers Union took the initiative in launching the Workers Institute of Technology (WIT) which is situated in Port Kelang, the premier port in Peninsular Malaysia. The WIT offers courses of study in a variety of commercial and industrial skills. Another institute started largely on the initiative of the National Union of Plantation Workers, assisted by the Negeri Sembilan State Development Corporation and the Lutheran Church specializes in training young men to develop agro-industrial skills.

Indigenous non-formal education traditions. In Asian society before the advent of the electronic media, mass education for the community at large was carried out through certain colourful traditional practices. For example in Indonesia the *wayang kulit* or the shadow play has been the obvious traditional vehicle for the communication of a knowledge of the epic dramas like the *Ramayana*. In the case of Malaysia there are some age-old indigenous traditions which can be identified as non-formal education. The mosque has been a centre of religious instruction for young and old. In addition many mosques provide guidance and counselling for young people who are contemplating marriage.

The Hindu temples are also noted for religious instruction using non-formal methods. Scenes from the epics *Ramayana* and *Mahabaratha* may be staged. Another popular folk tradition is the recitation of legends and stories to convey moral truths. The skilful story-teller employs narration tinged with wit and humour as well as song and verse to sustain the interest of his audience.

The Christian churches organize a variety of non-formal education programmes such as guidance classes for engaged couples, seminars on moral and social issues and free tuition for students from disadvantaged homes.

Public library development. There has been a significant increase in the number of public libraries in Malaysia. The federal government is responsible for the National Library. The states operate State Library Corporations. The condition of libraries and the quality of their services differs from one state to another. Some states like Selangor have developed mobile library systems in addition to the traditional library situated on purpose-built premises. The Trengganu state government has announced its policy to develop at least one public library in every district.

Education for civic competence

National solidarity classes. 'Education for civic, political and community competence' is a recognized category of adult or non-formal education. In Malaysia the best example of a programme under this classification is officially designated as Education for National Solidarity, and it is the responsibility of the National Unity Board, a statutory body.

After the race riots of May 1969 the government felt there was need to embark on a deliberate policy of promoting goodwill and inter-communal harmony. A Ministry of National Unity was established to organize programmes of non-formal education aimed at developing national unity. That Ministry later became a Department and today the national unity goals are undertaken by the National Unity Board.

The National Unit Board runs two types of education programmes: classes in Bahasa Malaysia for non-Malays and classes devoted to a study of the customs, traditions and religious beliefs and festivals of the three principal ethnic groups in the country, Malays, Chinese and Indians.

The objectives of the national solidarity classes programme are:

1. To enable Malaysians of all racial groups to communicate with one another in the National Language; and
2. To inculcate in the minds of participants the virtues of loyalty and good citizenship so that they can plan a more constructive role in our democratic way of life.

The emphasis is on oral expression as a first step towards proficiency in mastering the National Language. The solidarity classes comprise three stages: elementary, intermediate and advanced. The advanced stage is comparable to grade VI or the highest class in primary education.

Civics tours. During the Emergency (1948–1960) there were several programmes aimed at bringing the machinery of government closer to the people and at winning hearts and minds in the struggle against Communist terrorism and subversion. A popular method which still exists today is the organization of civic tours for kampong or village people. A typical one-day tour takes in visits to a state capital, briefing and film shows on development projects and visits to some of the following: agricultural experimental stations, tin mines, industrial establishments, broadcasting stations, airports, state legislatures, Parliament, museums, and universities.

Need for an adult education association. In January 1979, in inaugurating a course on non-formal education methodology for radio and television programme producers, the Deputy Minister for Education, Datuk Chan Siang Sun, commented on the need for a professional organization which would bring together individuals working in or interested in the field of adult or non-formal education. Accordingly a small group of interested persons held three meetings in which they discussed a draft Constitution for a Malaysian Association for Continuing Education. The Association for Continuing Education will, it is hoped, be able to:

1. Organize public lectures and seminars;
2. Publish a journal of adult/formal education;
3. Run courses on methodology of non-formal education;
4. Act as a depository for materials on non-formal education; and
5. Establish contact with non-formal education groups overseas.

* * *

The preceding article has provided a comprehensive picture of adult education in Malaysia. Beginning on the next page, a second article from Malaysia describes briefly two adult education programmes.

Bulletin of the Unesco Regional Office
for Education in Asia and the Pacific
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MALAYSIA

ADULT EDUCATION PROGRAMMES

by Abdul Jabar Abubakar

Introduction

Adult education programmes in Malaysia are undertaken by various organizations and institutions, both governmental and non-governmental. Although these programmes cater for different groups of interests, they may be classified as follows:

1. Fundamental education concerned with hygiene, family health, nutrition and the community;
2. Vocational training for skills in farming, animal husbandry, fishing and the trades and crafts;
3. Remedial and continuing education for those who are not in school to give them a second chance to continue their education;
4. Literacy education;
5. Correspondence education;
6. Religious education; and
7. Co-operative education, and other educational programmes primarily for adults.

This article attempts to give a brief idea of two adult education programmes carried out by the Community Development Division of the Ministry of Agriculture. The programmes are the Functional Literacy Programme and the Work-Oriented Programme/Group.

Organization and administration

The Community Development Division of the Ministry of Agriculture is headed by a Director-General and has administrative as well as professional staff. The Division is divided into four units each headed by a different director. The units are: (1) Community Education, (2) Family Development, (3) Training, and (4) Administration and Finance.

The actual operation is carried out by the State Community Development Department, headed by a Director. He is assisted by a Deputy, Senior Supervisor, District Supervisors and the *Pemaju Masyarakat;* that is, teachers/leaders of Community Development Groups/Classes.

Objectives and approach

The Community Development Programmes of the Ministry of Agriculture have two primary objectives:

1. To change the attitude of the community to being more development-oriented, and to be ready and able to participate actively in the educational, economic and political life of the nation.
2. To promote self-reliance in the community so that members can undertake the responsibility of improving their own economic and social conditions.

To achieve these objectives, a three-pronged approach has been adopted:

1. **Pre-conditioning the community:** arousing interest and awareness of the community to be ready and able to accept and participate in development programmes.
2. **Developing the initiative of the community:** getting the community to participate in development programmes by exploiting readily-available resources and to be self-dependent.
3. **Co-operating with other agencies:** getting the community to cooperate with other extension services to derive full benefits, and where this is not possible to make full use of available resources or to provide a rudimentary form of that service.

Functional literacy programmes

The 1951 census indicated a high rate of illiteracy–1,868,948 as compared to 1,657,602 literate adults–in an adult population of only 3,526,550. This condition if not remedied will hamper economic growth.

A programme to eradicate illiteracy was launched in 1961 through the opening of literacy classes throughout Malaya. In 1963, with the formation of Malaysia, this programme was also extended to Sabah and Sarawak. By 1971 an estimated half-million adults were made literate. According to the 1970 Population Census, however, approximately one-and-three-quarter million adults–especially those in the rural areas–were still illiterate. In 1974 the pure literacy classes were abolished except in Sabah and Sarawak and the functional literacy programme was adopted.

Curriculum and methods of teaching. Adults, even though they are illiterate, are engaged in a certain occupation. The early method of teaching only the romanized scripts is inadequate. Other than combating illiteracy, some form of help should be given to adults to improve their living.

The new curriculum encompasses the learning of reading and writing together with discussions on how to improve the quality of life, how to increase production and thereby contribute towards material and spiritual upliftment. In other words, functional literacy should be based on problem-solving and should be geared towards the needs of the learners. For example, a learner may in one class learn how to spell and write the word 'fish'. This will be followed by a discussion on how to improve fishing, for example using modern nets and study of reliable boats. At the same time, the words 'boat' and 'net' and ideas are put in writing for the particular session.

Learning materials are drawn up in the form of lesson sheets that make up the totality of a subject. Each lesson is distributed at each session so that a regular student will find that he has more materials than one who only attends occasionally. Occasional students should not be dismayed, however, as materials for a particular subject are assembled in a special folder which will be given to every participant. This method of distribution is found to be more suitable to adults because:

1. If they are absent during a particular session, they will not be left behind as each subject taught is a complete subject.
2. Learners will only look at one lesson during one session, thus eliminating difficulties of learning and the feeling that there is too much to learn.

A variety of subjects can be taught to suit the interests of the learners. To encourage participation the teacher can visit homes and conduct classes on an individual basis, thus stimulating the interest of the whole family. Community halls, mosques and other suitable buildings are also used as classrooms.

Duration of learning. The learning is in three stages. In the first stage, learners identify words, construct short sentences and do simple written arithmetic. In stage two, participants should be able to write short compositions of from three to five sentences; read short paragraphs and do simple arithmetic. Finally, it is hoped that learners will be able to read, write and do simple arithmetic which they can use. At this stage also they should now be able to compose letters or be able to read simple reading materials without any help from others.

In June 1980, there were altogether 221 functional literacy classes attended by 4,579 participants. In Sabah and Sarawak,literacy classes are still conducted (696 classes with 19,781 participants).

Work-oriented groups/classes

This programme was started in 1968 as a pioneer project, as a step towards diversifying adult education activity. It became active simultaneously with the launching of the Second Malaysia Plan (1971). Initially, the programme was just intended to fill in leisure time besides providing adults with basic skills in certain trades and crafts. Today, in line with the policies and objectives aimed at the betterment of the socio-economic conditions of the rural community, the objectives of the programme are:

- to provide people with an opportunity to further their interest and training in a particular skill or trade.
- to provide them with an opportunity to embark on a business of their own.
- to provide better chances of finding employment.
- to revive and retain traditional skills as well as to encourage invention using locally-available resources.

There are two categories in the programmes. Category A consists of the following trades:

- Motor mechanics
- Radio and TV repair
- Wiring (electrical/electronics)
- Bicycle/motorcycle repair.

Category B is made up of the following:

- Tailoring/embroidery
- Weaving
- Carpentry
- Handicraft (wood/bamboo/rattan/metal/leather)
- Beauty culture
- Food preservation
- Typing
- Other trades/crafts approved by the Division.

Method of implementation. The Department does not select places nor areas where classes should be opened. Instead, the community itself decides whether it needs such classes. Applications to start classes are made to the respective state Community Development Department usually through the Village Development and Security Committee (VDSC) or through the District Supervisors working closely with the VDSC. Two factors have to be considered:

a) Availability of teachers/instructors
b) Financial implications including the purchasing of equipment.

To ensure smooth running, an administrative committee is formed. Any voluntary body such as the Women's Institute, Youth Clubs as well as the VDSC could be appointed on the administrative committee. Adults who have left school and are above 15 years of age are eligible to participate. To set up a workshop/group, a minimum of ten participants is required.

Hours of learning. For classes in Category A, participants are required to attend classes not less than 20 hours per week. This requirement is also true of classes in Category B, which are held in workshops/community service centres. For classes in Category B, whether held at the community halls or any location other than workshops, participants are required to attend ten hours of classes per week. Teachers in charge of these classes are required to teach two groups of the same trade to balance the working hours with the teachers in the workshops.

The time and day that classes are held are fixed by agreement between the teachers and participants. Plans are being formulated to enable participants to sit for trade examinations organized by the National Industrial Training and Trade Certification Board of Malaysia (NITTCB).

Participants of classes in Category A are required to attend classes for two years before they can sit for the NITTCB basic grade examinations. In the case of participants in Category B, one year of class attendance is required before they are allowed to take the NITTCB basic grade examination in a particular trade. The course contents are based on the NITTCB syllabus.

Equipment. All equipment needed for a trade/class must first be provided either by the teachers themselves or by the organization responsible for setting it up. Additional equipment will be provided by the Department. A minimum standard of requirement has been drawn up to facilitate this.

Training of teaching personnel. Teachers of vocational training classes are selected for their experience and skills in a particular trade/craft. To enhance their skills and knowledge in their respective trades, facilities are being provided for them at the Industrial Training Institute.

Current development. On June 1980, there were 140 work-oriented groups in Category A and 3,074 groups in Category B. The numbers of participants are 2,238 and 52,251 respectively. A comprehensive guide to requirements and standards is now being put into use.

Problems

Problems of personnel, research and evaluation. One of the main problems encountered in implementing any adult education programme is shortage of personnel. This shortage is found at all levels, from the planning right down to grass-roots level. The adult education workers at all levels must be equipped with the skills not only to deal with adults but also with the knowledge and attitude to make the programme a success.

Adult education is not new in Malaysia. Traditional knowledge and skills have been passed from generation to generation as part of the cultural heritage. There is a need to establish a firm foundation in study and operational research to respond to changing needs and communicate new discoveries. Programmes or projects must be based on a socio-economic study of the area concerned even if this involves no more than assembling and analysing available information and statistics.

The determination of content is a matter which demands continuous operational research. What are the problems of a particular area? What topics are interesting? What do people want to learn? Operational research is needed to verify the content of education, in order to ensure that it is true and valid. Operational research should ensure that it is a two-way communication channel with 'feedback' from the learners to the teachers.

There is also a place for programme or project evaluation. It should be a measurement of the achievements of the programme in a particular area over a period of time against the aims and objectives originally planned for it. Evaluation should be in real terms, conceived for example in the number of people made literate, successfully completing a specific training course—or it may go further to measure the effects of the programme on behaviour, attitudes, health, nutrition, productivity or other indicators of social and economic development. Its benefits must be weighed against its costs.

Co-ordination. Adult education programmes in Malaysia are widely diffused and are carried out by both government and non-government agencies. Hence there is considerable duplication. A national body is desirable as it would help to co-ordinate the activities of all the agencies.

Future developments

All community development and Adult Education of the Community Development Department of the Ministry of Agriculture will in future be incorporated at the Community Service Centres to be set up. Among other things, each centre would:

1. Provide proper administration, organization and supervision for various community development activities.
2. Provide in a centrally located place better facilities, equipment and instruction for local youths and adults in various subjects for self-improvement.
3. Co-ordinate and utilize the available resources and manpower of the village for the full benefit of the rural population and eventually establish itself as the educational and civic centre for the area.

At the moment two such centres are already operating. Twenty-eight more centres will be established; 12 of them financed by the World Bank and the rest by the Ministry. In addition, three more Family Development Centres will be established (four such centres have already been set up) to provide training to rural women community leaders.

Another training centre—Socio-Economic and Attitude Re-orientation Institute (SEDAR)—will also be established to serve two purposes:

1. Provide skills in community development, particularly on the technical and professional side.
2. Stimulate the requisite response from the community itself as well as non-government organizations towards upliftment of rural living standards.

Apart from providing training, the Centre should facilitate research and evaluation in Community Development and Adult Education. To work with people an understanding of methodology is needed. The programmes of the centre will be geared towards this need. ☐

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NEPAL

by Dharanidhar Gautam

Introduction

Nepal is a landlocked, predominantly agricultural country which extends from high mountainous regions to the lower (*Terai*) regions. It has different types of climate and vegetation. The specific needs of a community differ from one part to another. It lacks communications and transportation—especially in the mountains. That is the main reason why the people living in rural areas hesitate to come to urban areas and vice-versa. Since the dawn of the country's democratic system, the major emphasis has been on the development of the rural areas. The development rate, however, is still low.

In the past three decades the literacy rate has been raised from one to twenty per cent. The rate of female literacy, however, is only five per cent and in the case of rural women it is very much lower. Even in this modern age, local values and traditional concepts are largely responsible for keeping the society static. To improve this state of affairs a change in the attitudes of the people has to be brought about by education. Also education should aim at eradicating illiteracy and improving the economic standards of the people.

National policy of literacy

The development strategy aimed at raising the standards of people living in different parts of the country must take into account the forces that contribute to changes in rural attitudes and skills. Obviously, as an agent of change, education through a different delivery system—formal and non-formal—has a very significant role to play. If, on the one hand, the rural adults need to shake off many of their out-dated beliefs and prejudices in favour of emerging values, then on the other, various development activities need to be organized for the rural working population. Considering these implications, the adult functional literacy programmes currently in operation lay stress on imparting practical knowledge and skills mainly in the areas of agriculture and health to the different communities of the country.

Since 94 per cent of the people of Nepal live and must earn their livelihood in rural areas, the education system must be adjusted to their real needs: education must be the means by which a predominantly rural agricultural society forges ahead. Recognizing this, Nepal has taken a major decision that all educational programmes should attempt to meet the minimum needs of the population, with the emphasis on improving living standards for the rural masses.

Since the implementation of the National Education System Plan (NESP) in 1972, Nepal has made significant progress in its formal schooling system and partly in its non-formal education system. The numbers of schools and students enrolling in them have been increasing and the adult education programme has also gained momentum. Under His Majesty the King's leadership, Nepal is committed to making the common people able and active in improving their quality of life.

It is not possible to do this unless the people are made conscious of realities through the massive literacy campaign. Therefore the Government is putting great emphasis on expansion and development of the literacy programme in the Sixth Five-Year Plan 1980–1985. Since 1978 the functional adult education programme has been made more comprehensive and has been integrated with the life of individuals and the community. It is expected to contribute a major role in the development of the country.

Objectives

To meet the needs of the rural population, the functional adult education programme has been implemented since 1977 with the following objectives:

1. To enable illiterate adults to cope with simple numerical skills along with reading and writing;
2. To train adults in the profession or vocation they are involved in and thereby increase their efficiency;
3. To teach them about cleanliness, sanitation, health care and the political system; and
4. To make them aware of population growth and its consequences.

The functional adult education programme is mostly confined to people aged between 15 and 45 who have not attended school. It also tries to include children who have no time to join formal school.

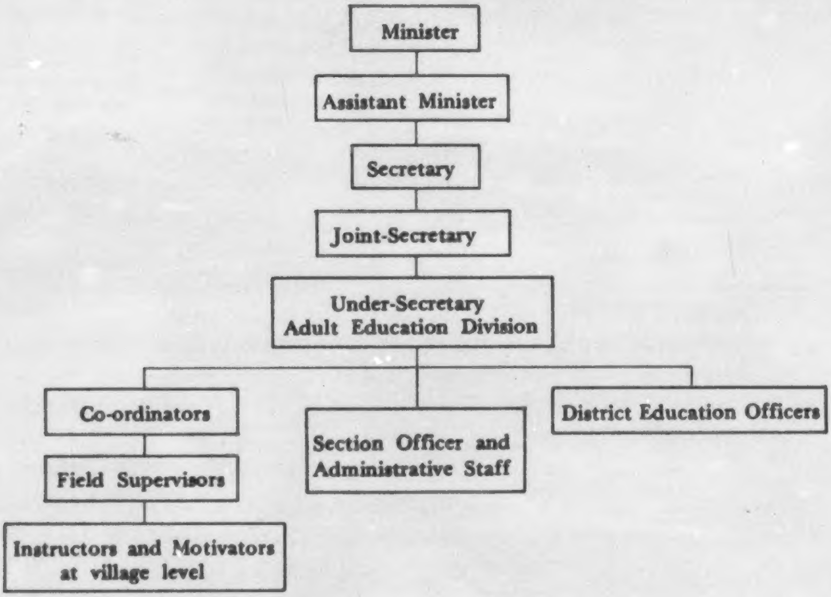
Administrative structure and implementing agencies

The programme was framed at the central level at first and was entrusted to the Educational Research Centre, to conduct its experimental phase. After that it came to be a part of the Ministry of Education's programme. At the end of 1978 the programme was handed over to the Adult Education Division in the Ministry of Education to start its first cycle.

The Ministry is headed by a Minister of Education aided by an Assistant Minister. There is an education secretary and four joint-secretaries. A joint-secretary holds different channels of administration through under-secretaries.

Under the joint-secretary—there is an Adult Education Division, headed by an under-secretary and under him, there are adult education co-ordinators, supervisors and specialists and other administrative personnel. The division circulates the policy, plan and directions to District Education Offices which are the main branches of the Ministry at the district level. The District Education Offices implement the programme with the help of co-ordinators, motivators and voluntary agencies. Although the programme has been extended to many districts this year, Nepal realizes that the administrative set-up is still insufficient to fully implement it.

Organization Chart


Minister
Assistant Minister
Secretary
Joint-Secretary
Under-Secretary Adult Education Division
Co-ordinators
Section Officer and Administrative Staff
District Education Officers
Field Supervisors
Instructors and Motivators at village level

The Government of Nepal has allotted a substantial part of its budget to the programme. International agencies and organizations are also providing money and materials. Nepal is getting technical assistance from Unesco and other concerned agencies. The country still lacks resources but is doing its best to derive better results from the available resources.

Curriculum and training programme

Due to the complexity of multi-ethnic groups and diversity of places, no uniform curriculum and materials can be prescribed for all. The subject matter that will be taught has to be decided by a detailed survey of the local needs of the particular society in which local people and local development workers are to participate.

After the selection of an adult education centre, the supervisor has to select the motivators, whether teachers or local leaders, to carry out the programme. The teachers or instructors are given short-term training in which the main emphasis is on how to prepare teaching materials, methods of teaching adults, motivation and the involvement of people in the community.

Teams of experts were involved in collecting the necessary information about different communities of the country. Different types of questionnaires, interviews and observations were used to collect the information. Local leaders and administrators, social workers and intellectuals were also interviewed. The data obtained were processed by the Education Ministry and the needs of the community were identified. Thus the programme framed at the central level was tested by the National Education Committee at the Centre for Educational Research, Innovation and Development. During the experimental stage a variety of innovative methods and materials were developed and tested with the help of co-ordinators, supervisors and motivators through governmental and non-governmental agencies in 46 communities of nine districts representative of the diverse ethnic and geographic regions of the country.

At the end of the experiment, the programme was evaluated with the help of a questionnaires, interviews and discussions. Questionnaires concerning information on literacy, health and agriculture were distributed to the adult participants, motivators and the supervisor. To validate the data, the problems and issues were discussed with the participants. The result of the experimental programme was very encouraging and it was found that the people benefited from it. The programme was formulated on the basis of local people's needs and their aspirations. It was later implemented in 26 districts.

Evaluation

About 80 per cent of the population, mostly adults, are still illiterate and fatalistic in their attitude. The primary aim of development is to raise their critical awareness in relation to their needs and problems and the secondary aim is to equip them with appropriate and productive skills. In view of the importance of these needs Nepal is making great efforts to achieve the active participation of all sections at all levels, particularly in the field of adult education. As a result, the number of participants has increased.

To co-ordinate different agencies there is a co-ordination committee at the central level comprised of secretaries of the related ministries. The co-ordination committee decides the policy guidelines and directs the Adult Education Division in order to implement the programme effectively. At district level there is also an education committee comprising members from various walks of life. The district education officer acts as secretary to help the programme. The district education office also organizes conferences and meetings of the different units related to the functional adult education programme. Nepal now realizes that the co-ordination committees should be active and extended at different levels for effective implementation of the programme.

The non-formal education programme has not achieved its main target of rural transformation. This is because of the following problems:

1. Lack of financial management;
2. No suitable organizational structure and co-ordination mechanism;
3. Untrained and non-stable manpower;
4. Irregularity in supervision and participation;
5. Extensive approach of the programme;
6. Environmental situations and detachment of rural areas;
7. Irrelevancy of the programme to the real-life situations of the learners; and
8. Lack of flexibility and continuity.

Conclusion

The Ministry of Education plans to eradicate these problems during the Sixth Five-Year Plan 1980–1985. During this period about 40,000 literacy centres will organize lessons for 1,400,000 illiterate adults and about 20 districts will conduct massive literacy campaigns. To retain literacy among neo-literates, about 620 reading centres will be opened. Some 225 trained supervisors will be employed and the programme will be implemented alongside rural developmental activities.

From 1951 to 1981 the literacy rate in Nepal has gone up from one per cent to twenty per cent, but the level of literacy is still far behind that of some of the developing countries. Since the Government is committed to eradicating illiteracy there is hope for continuing improvement. □

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NEW ZEALAND

by Peter Creevey

Background

The National Council of Adult Education was established in its present form in 1963. Up to that time it had been concerned with allocating resources to adult education agencies, principally the university extension departments and the Workers' Educational Associations. The WEAs are voluntary bodies providing non-formal education and university extension work is also mostly non-formal.

Under the 1963 Adult Education Act, the Council is charged with advising Government on the best directions for adult education, advising and supporting people working in the field of adult education, and the development of innovative and exploratory projects in the field. To carry out these functions the Council receives an annual grant from the Government to support a headquarters staff of eight including a publications editor, a part-time librarian and administrative staff. The regular grant in the current financial year is NZ $ 239,000 of which NZ $170,000 is for salaries.*

From April 1978 the grant was increased to allow the appointment of three of the four field officers who were assigned to the four projects listed below. The training appointment is a permanent one, while the others are staffed on renewable, initially three-year contracts. The fourth project, Adult Reading Assistance was funded by a private foundation for three years.

Training development

In 1977 a Council working party on the Training of Continuing Educators had suggested this project and outlined several areas which might be explored by a full-time field officer. Promotion removed the first appointee from the field in 1978, but the second appointee has now completed one-and-half-years in the field.

Firstly, the training needs for tutors were identified by the working party as induction, initial, basic and post-basic, with only the post-basic training leading to any form of qualification. This is largely because of the wide variety of agencies which provide adult continuing education in New Zealand. Many of the tutors are only part-timers, and even for full-time tutors in the tertiary institutions there is little training available. The second category of training needs is programme planners or directors who may work in university extension posts, community centres, voluntary organizations, community colleges, high school evening classes or even positions supported by local bodies dealing with community development or recreation and sport.

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* Approximately 1.17 New Zealand dollars (NZ $) = one US dollar.

New Zealand, therefore, has no recognized qualifications yet in existence and no compulsory preparation for the work and selection is on the basis of proven competence and skill. The National Council has no executive power to require attendance at courses and very little funding to subsidize any learning opportunities. The project task becomes one of demonstration and persuasion, and non-formal methods which draw on the life experience of participants naturally commend themselves. The absence of training programmes in the past has also meant that there are very few resource people to draw on for any practical training which is done. It is truly a process of lifting oneself by one's own bootstraps.

In a busy 18 months the field officer has concentrated on giving practical support to the programme planners, reasoning that they will be better prepared to arrange training for tutors once they are more confident in their own roles. He has developed a series of one-week residential seminar/workshops, which are highly experiential. As part of a process of discovery learning, programme planners set their own agenda on the first day. There are few–if any–outside resource people in attendance, and the course participants are forced to draw upon their own life and work experience to solve the problems and to meet the learning needs which they themselves have identified.

Typical agenda items will be needs assessment, goal-setting, programme leadership, organizational development, inter-agency co-operation, helping people learn, fund-raising, tutor-training, financial management, and evaluation. Participants express a high level of satisfaction with the courses, and are beginning to work co-operatively in their home areas on follow-up discussions.

Tutor training, the other half of this project, has been encouraged by providing consultancy to individual organizations, schools or community groups and by calling regional discussion meetings. Some non-formal courses have been offered by the universities or by a number of agencies co-operating to provide modular training for interested people. A preliminary account of this work will be published in the National Council's next edition of its journal "Continuing Education in New Zealand."

Maori and Pacific Islands continuing education

Much of the direction for this project came from another working party, whose report on "Maori Adult Education" was published in 1972. One field officer has been appointed to encourage more non-formal learning opportunities in a community setting. Most of her work at this stage has been among the Maori people although contact with the Pacific Islands communities is developing.

The marae of the Maori people has been a centre for community activities, including continuing education, for many centuries although the importance of this function may have been diminished by the introduction of free and compulsory education for children. Cultural differences and socio-economic disadvantages in many Maori communities have resulted in disproportionately low achievement levels by Maori students within the essentially-European school system. It has emerged, through a continuing dialogue with the Maori communities around New Zealand, that a non-formal system, divorced from curricula and based in the community or on the marae, is the best learning opportunity for those who have not profited from formal schooling.

New learning opportunities have been encouraged in a number of ways, invariably decided upon and controlled by the community itself. Sometimes these opportunities will grow around a children's pre-school project, a crafts workshop or a cultural performing arts group; sometimes it will be through the self-help efforts of youth gangs who wish to substitute their alienated lifestyle for a labour co-operative project. One of the most promising developments is in the Maori language, many people having lost their knowledge of Maori due to the banning of Maori in the schools (in less enlightened times) or through the breaking up of rural communities and family ties when Maori people were attracted to the cities by better employment prospects.

In association with a Maori linguist, community learning groups have been formed to acquire Maori fluency using the silent way proposed by C. Gattegno.[1] The early results are extremely encouraging. The method uses the goodwill of fluent speakers of the language to give community-based non-formal lessons using a simple system which does away with formal grammar lessons or rules of construction. Students learn as a child learns—by listening, watching and repeating. Even people who have failed to obtain fluency in polytechnic or university classes are reporting dramatic progress and it is hoped that ongoing support for the working tutors will see a revival which is essential if the Maori language in New Zealand is to be saved.

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[1] "The common sense of teaching foreign languages the silent way," *in* Gattegno C. *Education solutions.* New York, 1972.

Broadcasting liaison

In a country as sparsely-settled as New Zealand, communications are important and innovations in distance learning are not new. This is outlined in a recent report of a Department of Education working party. Although radio has been used for many years to supplement school and correspondence lessons, it has not yet entered the era of non-formal continuing education. The government radio station network, Radio New Zealand, has recently established a Continuing Education Unit to produce education programmes for its 30-odd stations and the National Council's project officer works from this unit.

The Project Officer's task has been to encourage more radio stations to involve themselves with their communities in identifying and planning programmes which will be more informative and instructive and rely less on pure entertainment and music. Community groups are also encouraged to make approaches to radio stations and make their needs and wishes known, as well as learning the skills which will enable them to take fuller advantage of community access to the air waves.

To set the example, the project officer has worked actively to assist with the preparation and airing of pilot programmes dealing with the women's movement, trade unionism and the changing nature of the workforce in the 80s. One of these programmes won a national award last year even though the field officer is not a trained broadcaster. The approach to true community broadcasting relies on improving communication between the media and the community on participative planning and programme development and on a two-way sharing of skills.

The bastions of television, which is a state-owned monopoly, have yet to be stormed. Television New Zealand (TVNZ) has been discussing educational television with educators for many years but is only now beginning to develop policies and promise action. It is the hope of the National Council that the non-formal approach will also be used in this medium, and representations have already been made to the authorities to open a dialogue. Experience with the broadcasting media suggests that they do not serve well as principle educational tools. Their coverage, however, makes them important as stimuli to learning and reinforcers of participation in learning.

The ideal goal from the viewpoint of the National Council's advisory committee on educational use of the broadcasting media, is that educational broadcasts should be co-ordinated with non-formal educational programmes, and supplemented by them. This will require plenty of lead-time, co-operative programme development, good communication between educators and broadcasters and co-operation between agencies. Example will continue to be the best motivator of broadcasters, educators and policy-makers.

It is also felt that strictly 'educational' programmes should not be separated from other programmes, either in filming or in programming. If producers are aware of the educational potential of documentaries, dramas, current affairs and other programmes, then they can keep this in mind when making programmes, knowing that colleagues in continuing education agencies will be engaged in preparatory and follow-up studies with students in the community.

Adult reading assistance

Because literacy is a relative term, adult educators in New Zealand have hesitated to use this word in discussing the encouragement of literacy and of adult basic education. Studies indicate, however, that there are between 50,000 and 100,000 people in this population of three million who have a major problem with reading and writing.

The National Council field officer has provided strong support and encouragement in this work in the last two-and-a-half years during which the number of community-based schemes providing one-to-one home tuition by voluntary tutors has grown from 14 to 85, largely due to her support and active tutor training. More than 3,000 tutors have been trained and more than 3,500 adult students given practical help to achieve functional literacy. They have also asked for basic numeracy and for the 'bridging' learning opportunities which will enable them to take up their continuing education again as adults.

The numbers who have difficulty with reading and writing are not seen as a cause for criticism of the formal school system. Some individuals are either not able or not motivated to learn during the compulsory period of their lives, but it is the sincere belief of the Council that they are entitled to be given the chance to learn when they do become motivated. There has been some favourable reaction from the Government to this view. High schools have recently opened their doors to adult students and most of them report a boost in classroom morale when adults return to study alongside school-age students. In the more basic work of help with reading and writing, some teritary institutions have allocated a few tutor positions to the co-ordination and support of the voluntary schemes. It is hoped that further evaluation of the learning experiences of adult literacy students will encourage more government recognition of the work, leading to the development of a full policy for practical support.

One of the major attributes for literacy tutors is the ability to understand how their students see the world about them, and to approach the work with an attitude which is supportive and not judgemental. It is estimated that 90 per cent of tutor training is concerned with the encouragement of right attitudes and only 10 per cent with understanding phonics or the other literacy learning methods.

A major resource production in the past year has been a Council manual on the training of voluntary tutors in adult literacy. It is significant that it has been titled "Sometimes Teacher, Sometimes Learner," for even when a well-educated person is helping another who is totally illiterate the learning process must be a two-way exchange, with full respect given to the life-experience contribution and the values system of the person being helped to learn.

'Measures' of learning are seen as repugnant if they are administered by a research instrument which intrudes into the confidential bond between tutor and student but the subjective input of tutor-student pairs will be recorded as this project progresses. Indications are that adults are acquiring functional literacy at ten times the speed of children and at one-tenth of the cost.

Evaluation

Each of the projects described has been well received both by educators and by the public. Each has drawn scores of enquiries and requests for help and this has been unstintingly given. Feedback has been constructive and supportive. There is undoubtedly an obligation however, placed upon the National Council to justify the public funds which have been spent on allowing 'free rein' to these field officers. How should this be attempted?

As a team of colleagues, the National Council staff has been impressed by the growing acceptance of participative research or 'shared' research and believes that this is the method to adopt in evaluating innovations and planning future directions from them. The adult reading assistance work and the Maori continuing education project will launch such evaluations in 1981 and the other two projects in 1982. In doing this, the National Council will be looking for examples and guidance from colleagues elsewhere. Each of the projects has been dealing with groups who are disadvantaged in educational terms and it is probable that these groups will have important things to say to the rest of their fellow-citizens and to those who formulate educational policy and fund educational programmes.

Conclusion

The style of these case studies has been discursive, rather than analytical. Each of the four projects has received relatively modest funding with a travel and expenses budget of from NZ $ 5,000 to NZ $7,500, and support of an administrative staff, resource production facility, library and so forth worth about NZ $70,000 a year. Each field officer has been appointed on the Technical Institute tutor salary scale and some small grants for specific seminars or publications have been received. The projects demonstrate the value of a non-formal approach to development within an adult education system which provides mostly non-formal learning opportunities and which is being challenged constantly to implement both the letter and the spirit of the 1976 Unesco Recommendation on the Development of Adult Education. ☐

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PAKISTAN

by Arif Majeed

Introduction

Pakistan is predominantly an agricultural country with a population of 77.86 million people unevenly distributed over 804,000 square kilometres. Nearly 75 per cent of the total population lives in the rural areas. Only 9 per cent of the country's 43,569 villages have electricity and only 16 per cent have metalled roads. The estimated annual population growth rate is 3 per cent and 46 per cent of the total population is made up of children aged below 15. About 59 per cent of the labour force is engaged in agriculture which accounts for about one third of Pakistan's national income.

Islam is the overwhelming cultural force and Islamic teachings constitute a compulsory portion of curricula at every level. Certain social institutions like home and mosque are used as the basis for imparting education to children, out-of-school youth, rural women and adults. The people vary greatly in racial and ethnic composition and speak about a dozen regional languages. Urdu, being the lingua franca, is understood and spoken all over the country. It is also being adopted as the medium of instruction at the higher education level and as the official language.

According to 1977-78 statistics the literacy rate in Pakistan was 23.7 per cent for a population of 5 years and above (35.5 per cent for males and 11.5 per cent for females). In rural areas the literacy rate was 14.3 per cent (23.6 per cent for males and 4.7 per cent for females). In urban areas the literacy rate was 41.5 per cent (49.9 per cent for males and 30.9 per cent for females). Only 27 per cent of people aged 10 years and above are literate and only 8.7 per cent of people aged 25 years and above are literate.

The above statistics show wide disparities among different age groups and areas. Literacy is extremely low in rural areas, particularly among females. Extremely low participation and high drop-out rates, particularly among females, makes the situation worse. If children, out-of-school youth and adults are to actively participate in the economic, social and cultural development of the country, suitable structures, teaching methods, materials, and management and evaluation systems must be developed as a matter of priority.

Background

Pakistan is a country which is facing several difficult and complicated development problems. Since the establishment of Pakistan, a number of campaigns have been launched to promote literacy and consequently economic development, but little success has been achieved. Causes of failure in the past were that these campaigns were not able to generate sustained motivation for the illiterate to learn to read and write; the administrative and organizational arrangements were not suitable; the teaching techniques were defective; there was not enough suitable reading material; and, above all, financial resources were insufficient.

Education in Pakistan is in a state of transition. The contents of education are undergoing revision and new strategies are being devised to achieve the aims of education in Pakistan. Unutilized and under-utilized community resources are being mobilized. The National Education Policy of 1979 is the first in recognizing the great potential of the country's indigenous institutions in bringing the desired change. Deviation from alien models is building a better strategy, thus giving necessary confidence and assurance for future planning and programming of educational efforts in the country.

Adult education programme

Providing access to education is a duty of each and every Muslim. The teachings of Prophet Mohammed stress the need for seeking knowledge from the cradle to the grave. Unfortunately, there was little provision in the formal system of education for those who wanted to extend their knowledge. Moreover, the formal system of education alone cannot meet the challenge due to limited financial resources and other pressing demands of the nation. The need for introduction of non-formal system of education is, therefore, considered imperative so that out-of-school youth, the rural female population and adults can become literate and learn some skilled vocation or trade.

A number of programmes to promote adult education and functional literacy through revitalization of indigenous institutions are being launched. Prominent among these are the Experimental Pilot Project Integrating Education in Rural Development (EPPIERD) and Integrated Functional Education Project (IFE).

Experimental Pilot Project Integrating Education in Rural Development (EPPIERD). This is an experimental project being operated by the Federal Ministry of Education in collaboration with Unesco.

Objectives. The overall aim of the project is to develop effective methods of assisting children, young people and adults in the rural areas to

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prepare them for effective integration into the economic, social and cultural development of Pakistan. Educational and functional programmes closely related to the realities of the rural life are being developed through the use of the following indigenous institutions: (a) Mosque schools; (b) Mohallah schools; (c) Women's education centres; and (d) Village workshop schools.

Target population. The project has been launched in 20 villages in the vicinity of the federal capital territory. The target groups include: (a) Out-of-school youth and adults, and (b) Children in school.

Administrative structure. A Pakistani project director is the overall co-ordinator of the project. A Unesco consultant and a number of advisory committees from the federal to the village level assist in implementing the objectives of the project. Village education committees with a school headmaster/headmistress as an ex-officio secretary of the committee have also been constituted for supervision, diffusion and formulation of EPPIERD programmes. A resource women organizes work in women's education centres and a trained teacher imparts literacy and other skills in mosque/mohallah schools and village workshops.

Financial resources. The project is a part of Unesco's regular programme. US $ 300,000 was provided by Unesco until December 1980, while UNDP allocated US $ 400,000 for the project in their second country programme. The Swiss Government and UNICEF have also shown interest in assisting the project to enable it to expand in the provinces.

Curriculum. The project has produced basic literacy materials on Urdu and numeracy for education of adults. Post-literacy materials on topics like stitching, nutrition, preventive health measures, vocational and home crafts, livestock rearing, agriculture, folk tales, and other subjects of interest to the rural community are under preparation. A cyclostyled publication on stitching is also available for use in women's education centres.

Training programme. Seminars and workshops for the training of project staff, supporting staff, heads of project schools and relevant personnel or participating agencies are arranged. Visits between project villages are also arranged. The EPPIERD provides continuous systematic supervision and guidance to the village committees, schools and the women's education centres.

Integrated Functional Education Project (IFE). This is a part of the Functional Education Programme of the Allama Iqbal Open University, Islamabad. The project is an illustration of the central objective of the university which aims at providing life-long and continuing education to working adults, housebound women, handicapped persons, in-service teachers and people living in the remote areas of the country through its multi-media delivery technology. The idea was first conceived by the university in 1975.

Objectives. The basic objective of the project is to give learners functional literacy by teaching them to write effectively and read with understanding. The project adopts an educational package approach consisting of three major components: (a) Functional education; (b) Functional literacy; (c) Skill training.

Target population. Men, women and youths aged 15 and above in 20 villages were the target groups of the project.

Administrative structure. The project was supervised by a project director and assisted by two project co-ordinators. Field co-ordinators conducted the need-assessment surveys and the evaluation and research co-ordinators evaluated the whole project. Subject specialists were assigned to prepare materials for the project.

Financial resources. It was agreed that project costs would be borne jointly by the Allama Iqbal Open University and the Asia Foundation. The University's contribution consisted of staff salaries and supporting facilities. Asia Foundation agreed to bear the costs of technical assistance provided by World Education and other costs involved in the project. The revised cost of the project was Rs. 945,480.* The University's contribution was Rs. 329,708.

Curriculum. The material development stage consisted of the following three sub-stages:

1. Material development for functional education:
   a) Development of motivational materials utilizing the techniques of line-drawing, Koranic verses, dialogues and questions;
   b) Instruction cards for teachers; and
   c) Reading material;
2. Material development for functional literacy;
3. Material development for acquisition of skills.

Training programme. A two-week teacher training workshop was organized on 5–17 July 1976, in which 40 village teachers participated. This provided an ample opportunity to the village teachers to acquaint themselves with the techniques of teaching literacy skills. In-service training of the teachers was also arranged and this provided them with opportunities to understand the objectives of the programme.

The Allama Iqbal Open University has also been preparing a similar project on a large scale to be called the Functional Education Project for

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* Approximately 9.90 Pakistan Rupees (Rs.) = One US dollar

Rural Areas (FEPRA) in a project area of 200 villages. The project will endeavour to involve other institutions and agencies, both governmental and non-governmental, for the exploration of new teaching and learning methods particularly of the group-learning mode as opposed to the individual-learner situation. The IFE and FEPRA, it is hoped, will not only make the project areas self-reliant but also generate a reservoir for feedback into the main stream of the University's activities.

Adult education and national plan perspectives

The National Education Policy of 1979 aims to train people for productive work and impress upon them the willingness to continue to learn and develop their abilities. A total mobilization of community resources including the use of mosques, civic buildings, mohallah schools, village workshop schools and so on is being organized to spread the benefits of fundamental education and functional literacy. Effective participation of local communities in the development and maintenance of educational facilities is being ensured. To meet these objectives, the policy suggests a number of operational programmes to promote adult literacy and functional literacy:

1. Exploitation of community resources;
2. Establishment of adult literacy centres;
3. Organization of radio and television programmes;
4. Training of adult literacy workers; and
5. Creation of a student volunteer corps.

Exploitation of community resources. Community resources will be harnessed to promote literacy throughout the country. Teaching of the Koran and literacy skills will be developed in 5,000 mosque schools by the end of 1983. In mohallah schools, where elderly women teach the Koran, home economics-oriented skills will be developed among girls in addition to literacy programmes. About 5,000 such schools will be established by 1983. About 1,000 village workshop schools will be established by the same year to impart useful skills like masonry, carpentry, use of agricultural implements and so on.

Establishment of adult literacy centres. Ten thousand adult literacy centres will be established, half of them sponsored by the Ministry of Education. The other centres will be sponsored by (a) Community Viewing Centres of Pakistan Television Corporation; (b) Marakaz (Centres) of the Integrated Rural Development Project; (c) Study Centres of Allama Iqbal Open University; (d) Social Welfare Centres; and (e) The Population Planning Division.

Organization of radio and television programmes. The Allama Iqbal Open University, through its multi-media delivery technology, will organize radio and television programmes and prepare special booklets and reading materials for adults and mobile operation units in the rural areas.

Training of adult literacy workers. Ten thousand workers to be employed in the adult literacy centres will be trained at the Allama Iqbal Open University. The training of 5,000 adult literacy workers will be sponsored by the Ministry of Education while the training of the remainder will be sponsored by the concerned agencies.

Creation of student volunteer corps. Senior students of B.A./B.Sc., M.A./M.Sc. levels will be inducted to launch the programmes of adult literacy.

Adult education and development of rural and urban areas

Among the overriding problems in the development of the economy are ignorance, low rates of literacy, high rate of school drop-outs, low standards of living, poverty, poor health and nutrition, lack of communications and social and religious barriers. The programmes that have been or will be launched will mainly aim at the promotion of literacy which will in turn promote civic awareness in the masses for participation in the community development programmes. The training in functional literacy and skills will provide an incentive to the adults to participate in the nation-building programmes and involve themselves in the production-oriented vocations or trades.

Mohallah schools have the potential of gradually developing into centres for production of articles of daily use and handicrafts and thus provide a livelihood for the rural population. Utilization of these schools potential will provide a fill-up to the universalization of education among young and adult females in rural areas. Women's Education Centres in two villages sell their produce to markets in the cities and thus make money for those centres and the women working there. In other villages the materials produced in the centres are at present primarily used for home consumption.

The village workshops are engaged in imparting functional literacy and teaching basic vocational skills. These workshops produce small agricultural implements and household furniture. Eventually they will become production-oriented and thus are expected to improve the economic conditions of local communities. Such workshops will foster a spirit of self-help, self-reliance and mobilization of locally available resources among the local communities.

The programme of the Allama Iqbal Open University mainly tries to produce a reservoir of trained teachers and workers whose services would be utilized for promotion of the objectives set forth in the National Education Policy. They will also encourage the people to actively participate in community development programmes and promote economic well-being. This will be of great benefit to the nation in the future.

Innovative aspects

Before the IFE programme of the Allama Iqbal Open University was initiated it was considered necessary to review project details critically. Details regarding timing of classes, co-ordination of activities, association of university faculties, site selection, staff facilities, programme content, script and medium of instruction and training of teachers were worked out with greater precision. On the basis of the experience gained in the project, the University is planning to extend the project to 27 villages.

The planning of a programme of this nature requires carrying out basic studies and determining who would benefit most from functional literacy. Such an exercise revealed that the target of the programme would be the village teachers as well as the learners. The training requirements of the village teachers were then analysed and translated into targets.

Implementation of the project involved a number of processes. They included initial contacts with 20 target villages in IRD Marakaz, Daultala, Punjab, through field departments and agencies, base-line and need assessment surveys of the target villages, development of methodology, curriculum and instructional materials, registration of village learners, selection and training of village teachers, supervision of classes, community inputs, programme evaluation, development of manuals and follow-up materials.

In all 420 male and 643 female adult learners were registered against a target of 400 each. The evaluation of the whole project was carried out during and after the completion of the project by the programme organizers and the learners. There was considered to be a need for striking balance amongst and within the functional education, literacy and skill-training components. Generous and varied provision for occupation-oriented skills like welding and tractor maintenance was a general demand.

Achievements

Basic materials for adult literacy have been developed. Post-literacy materials are under preparation. New techniques and methodologies for preparation of course materials and their applications are being evolved. The people have been made conscious of their responsibilities for development of community resources. The waste articles are being converted into useful items. The literacy and functional skills being imparted to rural women will go a long way towards educating future generations. A minimum level of understanding is being developed among the various groups of the population.

The establishment of village education committees has helped develop a link between the teachers and the rural organization and has promoted active participation of adults, particularly women, in such programmes. A number of agencies, both governmental and non-governmental, working independently for the promotion of adult literacy, are being motivated to develop a co-ordinated approach to solve the problem. In the case of the IFE, various agencies such as local educational authorities co-operated in allowing the use of school buildings and furniture. The IRD workers and the Social Welfare Authorities also gave a helping hand in the smooth execution of the programme. Human and material resources are there but the need is to explore these and bring them into effective and popular participation and mobilization.

Problems and difficulties

Any innovative programme will encounter some problems. The community may not respond to the novel ideas and innovations in the field. Co-education is not socially acceptable in rural communities. Education of female children, therefore, does not take roots in facilities created primarily for males. Identification of trades/skills relevant to the area may be difficult. Learners may leave as and when they get a suitable job in and around the community.

The overall problem in the field of adult education continues to be the co-ordination of a number of agencies involved in the programme of adult education through the formal and non-formal arrangements. There is now a general feeling that co-ordinated efforts would have to be made to resolve the problem of adult illiteracy. The National Education Policy has, therefore, stressed the need for co-ordination in the efforts for promotion of adult education. The policy provides for the establishment of an organization to be known as the National Council on Adult Education with its nucleus at Allama Iqbal Open University. The council will have representatives from all Government agencies involved in the programme as well as 12 representatives of non-government organizations including at least three women. The council will co-ordinate all efforts in this field, channel funding in the field of adult education and mobilize new resources.

Prospects for development

The wide range of programmes and activities set forth in the National Education Policy indicate that a sound tradition has been established to promote literacy and functional skills among the out-of-school population, youths, rural females and adults. The need is to motivate the people and mobilize community resources through co-ordinated efforts of the government and non-government agencies. Limited financial resources and other competing demands hinder hopes for an early and easy solution to the problems of adult education. There is a strong need to harness and tap community resources, generate funds through production-oriented skills and promote the indigenous character of Pakistan's institutions.

There is very limited room in the conventional system of education for promotion of literacy among primary school drop-outs, rural women and adults. The stress is, therefore, on a non-formal system of education. A number of agencies, like Allama Iqbal Open University, EPPIERD, National Council for Social Welfare, Adult Basic Education Society (Naya Din Primer) and Educational Television are engaged in literacy and adult education activities in the country. There are ever increasing demands that concerted and co-ordinated efforts should be initiated from the government to the village level to overcome the problem.

The experiments carried out by the EPPIERD in establishing mosque/mohallah schools, women's education centres, village workshops and those carried out by the IFE in functional literacy, indicate that the development prospects of such institutions are showing an upward trend. If the people are properly motivated for popular participation, resources are mobilized, efforts are co-ordinated and a strong national commitment is made, then there will be an increasing demand for adult education institutions at all levels.

Adult education programmes will be supported by many departments and ministries and even commercial and industrial enterprises. Hence, every department/ministry will continue to include special allocations for launching such programmes in their budgets. Below are estimates of expenditure involved in each programme:

Mohallah School

Year	No. of schools	Cost (Rs. in millions)
1978-79	280	0.7
1979-80	880	3.1
1980-81	1 130	6.3
1981-82	1 300	9.9
1982-83	1 410	13.8
	5 000	
	Supervision and training	5.0
	Total:	38.8

Village workshops

Year	No. of workshops	Cost (Rs. in millions)	
		Non-Dev.	Dev.
1978-79	100	0.2	0.8
1979-80	150	0.3	1.2
1980-81	200	0.4	1.6
1981-82	250	0.5	2.0
1982-83	300	0.6	2.4
	1 000	2.0	8.0
		Supervision and training	2.0
		Total:	10.0

The funds required for the training of school teachers and IRDP/ social welfare workers as adult education workers would be shared equally by the Ministry of Education and other related agencies. The entire training of 10,000 workers will be carried out by the Allama Iqbal Open University. It is estimated that one worker can be trained at a cost of Rs. 500. The Ministry would contribute Rs. 2.5 million as its share while the remaining Rs. 2.5 million would be borne by the agencies nominating their workers for training. The radio and television programmes are the general feature of the Allama Iqbal Open University and Basic Education Society. Costs of such programmes would be met out of their allocated budgets.

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PHILIPPINES

by Pura Tumada Liban

Introduction

Today the Filipino is having to contend with the pressures of a changing world and his problems are more grave and challenging than they have ever been. For these reasons, the government has placed great emphasis on the development of education both formal and non-formal. The Presidential Decree of 13 May 1977, which has created the position of an Under-Secretary (now Deputy Minister of Education and Culture) in charge of non-formal education, has broadened the concept and scope of adult and community education in the Philippines. This decree has given impetus to learn to those who did not attend school, school-leavers and semi-literates and illiterates.

Records show that the non-formal education (NFE) programme is improving the economic status of people through its training programmes on occupational skills. The same statistics, however, also show that the labour market, particularly in large scale industries, prefers secondary school graduates to those without such qualifications, although the latter group possesses the same occupational skills and training. The statistics also show that about 30 per cent of school-leavers in the Philippines wish to rejoin the mainstream of formal education but find themselves too old to sit down in a school with young classmates. This is because of some cultural idiosyncracies.

Hence, the Ministry of Education and Culture, through the National Educational Testing Centre (NETC) has evolved the Accreditation and Equivalency Programme (AEP) which the Office of Non-Formal Education has strengthened for the benefit of out-of-school youths and adults.

What is the Accreditation and Equivalency Programme (AEP)?

A 1977 order of the Department of Education and Culture, gave birth to the AEP for school-leavers. Initially it was intended to cater for this particular group only. Initially too, the NETC started the programme and brought it up to its present status.

The AEP includes the Philippine Educational Placement Test (PEPT) which is intended to assess knowledge and work experiences in various areas. It is the basis for grade/year placement in the formal system, for manpower training and/or job placement, for either promotional or training purposes and for self-fulfilment.

The test consists of two parts: (1) the Academic Achievement Test, and (2) the Assessment Kit. The first is purely a measure of performance in various work experiences that school-leavers might have been exposed to. The test has been prepared by the NETC staff.

Who is qualified to take the Philippine Educational Placement Test (PEPT)?

The programme is intended for the following people:

1. Those who dropped out of school for one year or more;
2. Those who dropped out of school and intermittently enrolled but did not finish any grade/year;
3. Those who have not gone to school at all; and
4. Those who are presently in school but are over-age for their particular grade/year level and are recommended by the school authorities to take the PEPT.

Operational procedures

As required by the Education Department order of 1977, a regional testing centre with security provisions is set up in every region. The staff of each centre includes a mobile team comprising a regional testing co-ordinator, division testing co-ordinator and a guidance co-ordinator with experience in testing selected by the regional director. Applicants who want to take the test fill out forms issued by the NETC. Each school division registers their own test candidates during November and December each year.

The PEPT is administered every January by the NETC, through the regional testing centres. Security measures guard the confidentiality of the test. Answer sheets are delivered to the NETC by the regional testing co-ordinator and processing of the test is carried out by the Ministry of Education and Culture through the NETC. The NETC will prepare the certification of Accreditation or Equivalency based on the results of the test and the equivalence criteria. The certificates are then signed by the Minister of Education and Culture and a consolidated list of the names of accredited school-leavers is sent to the testing centres through the regional director.

Literacy schemes are also conducted not only in NFE pilot centres, of which there is one for every school division, but also in the 800 Decentralized Learning Resource Centres (DLRCs) throughout the country. DLRCs are used for production of materials for primary education. Training of teachers is also conducted in these centres.

In a few DLRCs, classes for participants in the AEP are held. The NFE co-ordinators organize the classes while secondary school teachers are invited to teach the participants. Honorariums for such teachers have been a problem, however. Self-learning kits have been considered to help these learners and, with the help of the civic organizations and the national media, this dream is expected to be realized. It will be an added spur to attract more people to participation in the AEP.

Participation

Of the 15 thousand school-leavers from both primary and secondary education, about 48 per cent have taken the PEPT. Of these, 20 per cent were given accreditation certificates and 28 per cent were given equivalence certificates. Of this group, about 10 per cent returned to formal schooling.

Problems

1. Lack of adequate knowledge about the AEP to make the targeted clients appreciate its objectives.
2. Strong cultural idiosyncracies in some places.
3. Lack of incentives such as scholarships for those who wished to continue schooling.
4. Test questions not in keeping with the work experiences of some of the participants.

Recommendations

1. Convert existing public secondary schools into technical/training schools where a participant earns a secondary school diploma while undergoing skills training.
2. Modification/improvement of the PEPT to suit the majority of the experiences of the expected clientele.
3. Incentives such as scholarships and study-now-pay-later plans for successful participants of the PEPT.
4. More funds to be allotted for regional testing centres and the mobile team.
5. Funding for the modules/self-learning kits and honorariums for teachers of the PEPT participants.

Philippine non-formal education in a nutshell

History. The Presidential Decree of 13 May 1977 created the position of Under-Secretary (now Deputy Minister of Education and Culture) in charge of non-formal education. The Deputy Minister has overall responsibility for the NFE programme of the Ministry of Education and Culture and for establishing links with institutions with similar programmes, both public and private, to ensure their effective and integrated implementation. The decree broadened the concept and expanded the coverage and programmes of non-formal education. The NFE includes any systematically organized educational activity carried on outside the framework of the formal school system to provide selected types of learning to particular sub-groups in the population, especially to out-of-school children, youths and adults.

Non-Formal Education as a part of the Philippine educational system is not new. Adult education, which is a component of non-formal education, has been going on since the enactment of Commonwealth Act No. 80 in 1935. This Act created the Office of Adult Education, to provide citizenship training to adults. Citizenship training was interpreted to mean the provision of literacy education, vocational and occupational training and the development of good moral character, personal discipline and civic conscience. The objectives of NFE are as varied as the needs of individuals and communities, but the goal is the development of self-reliant, self-sufficient, self-disciplined individuals and communities.

Target groups. These are:

1. Employed or unemployed school-leavers from elementary school or high school who would like to rejoin the mainstream of formal education.
2. Unemployed or under-employed people who need training in certain occupational skills to enable them to be more usefully employed, to be more competent, or to improve their earning capacity.
3. Those who attended school for only a few years and those who never attended school and need knowledge and skills to enable them to actively participate in social and civic affairs and lead better, more useful lives.
4. Technical workers and even professionals who need constant upgrading of skills or new knowledge to improve their qualifications and job performance. Special efforts, however, are being directed towards those found in under-privileged, under-served, and depressed sectors of the communities.

Concerned organizations. Non-formal education is the concern of all agencies, both public and private. Government ministries such as Agriculture, Agrarian Reform, Health, Human Settlements, Labour, Local Government and Community Development and Natural Resources are active in NFE. Private and public colleges and institutions have programmes for non-formal education. Non-governmental agencies, civic organizations, and religious groups, not only organize various NFE activities but also give unlimited support to the programmes.

Areas of concern. In the delivery of NFE, these are the following:

1. Literacy; general education;
2. Rural development; improving quality of family and community life;
3. Training for occupational skills;
4. Information and communications.

Major accomplishments

Below are a few of the most outstanding accomplishments:

1. The establishment of a mechanism within the Ministry of Education and Culture to organize and implement programmes and activities at regional, divisional and district levels.
2. The establishment of 125 NFE pilot centres, one in every provincial/city school division for various NFE activities. About 125 assistant superintendents of schools have been trained to co-ordinate such programmes, and these are helped by 2,345 district co-ordinators throughout the country.
3. The organization of non-formal education classes. A total of 714,068 people have graduated from such classes on functional literacy and continuing education, vocational/occupational skills training, technical courses, socio-civic-citizenship, sports, cultural, and leadership training.
4. The preparation and distribution of several materials including the learning modules for the various NFE skills training and functional literacy classes. These modules are written in Pilipino.
5. The establishment of 9,568 organized listening groups for the School-on-the-Air Programme (*Lingap ng Pangulo sa Barangay*) and the distribution of 2,000 radio sets to all schools districts for effective implementation of the programme.
6. The establishment and strengthening of links with local and foreign agencies.
7. The intensive development of human resources for the education and training of both staff and clientele.
8. The establishment with the NETC of an accreditation and equivalency programme for out-of-school youths and adults.

Non-formal education plans for 1979–1983

Based on the problems and needs of NFE as implemented from its inception in 1977, goals have been planned for the period 1979 and 1983 as listed on the pages which follow.

Human resources development

a) *NFE staff*

1. Conduct a series of field operational seminars for the training of NFE personnel at various levels to include the personnel of other government agencies and non-government organizations. Funding may be sought from foreign agencies.

2. Develop and extend the consortium and fellowship scheme now established with some universities and with the Philippine Rural Reconstruction Movement (PRRM) for the training of NFE personnel.

3. Explore possibilities of fellowship programmes abroad for the professional training of NFE personnel.

4. Promote internal, international and inter-project study visits.

5. Encourage teacher training institutions to include non-formal education in their curricula as a required course.

6. Undertake joint training projects with international and regional organizations such as the Asian and South Pacific Bureau of Adult Education (ASPBAE), the United States Agency for International Development (USAID), and the Unesco Regional Office in Bangkok.

7. Organize satellite division NFE pilot centres called "Barangay High School Pilot NFE Centres."

b) *Laymen and out-of-school youths*

1. Develop pilot small-scale home industries in each school division.

2. Organize cultural and sports groups of out-of-school youths and adults in every region, especially in cultural communities.

3. Conduct a series of programmes for training of rural women in income-raising group activities.

4. Organize leadership training programmes for members of the *Kabataang Barangay*.

5. Strengthen and intensify scholarship and travel grants to deserving out-of-school youths and other school-leavers.

6. Test the social laboratory concept as an NFE approach in selected depressed areas.

Information and publication management

1. Prepare and publish bulletins, newsletters, manuals, NFE education posters, and other educational information materials.
2. Put up NFE calendars depicting the NFE highlights of the 13 regions.

3. Publish a directory of agencies involved in non-formal education (this was published in 1981).

Research and evaluation

1. Conduct a comprehensive survey of the needs, problems, and resources of out-of-school youths and adults as a basis for the formulation of relevant programmes, activities and courses.
2. Encourage agencies involved in NFE to conduct simple research in the following areas: (a) staff development, (b) programme implementation and evaluation, and (c) community projects.
3. Conduct a mid-term evaluation of NFE programmes.

Management and co-ordination

1. Develop closer links with all agencies and organizations both governmental and non-governmental, involved in NFE.
2. Set up units in every region/division to provide links with existing occupational industrial establishments.
3. Organize a committee to evaluate the programme of the past years.

School-on-the-Air Programme (*Lingap ng Pangulo sa Barangay*)

1. Strengthen *Lingap* as a way of effectively bridging the information gap between the government and the people in the *barangay* especially those in remote areas. This will be done through:
    a) Establishment of closer links with government agencies and the private sector.
    b) A massive training programme for implementation of *Lingap*.
    c) Production and distribution of an information handbook.
    d) Improvement and extension of broadcasting.
    e) Rationalization of feedback methods.
    f) Modernization of communication equipment.
    g) Utilization of other media.

Implementation of the AEP for out-of-school youths and adults

1. Conduct a massive information campaign about the AEP in co-ordination with the NETC.
2. Train existing NFE staff in regional, division and district levels for continuing education via the AEP.
3. Production of learning modules for AEP participants.
4. Modify the PEPT for the needs of participants.

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REPUBLIC OF KOREA

by Yoon-Tai Kim

Introduction

Saemaul (New Village) Education finds its origin in the Saemaul Movement, which has been developed as a nationwide movement since it was proposed in 1970 by the late President Park. Since its inauguration it has spread like a prairie fire across the nation. As the word *Saemaul* denotes, it was designed to make new villages better places to live in, thus modernizing rural areas as well as minimizing the gap in living standards between urban and rural people. Extending the scope of its application, it refers to the efforts in building a new nation and creating an affluent and caring society. Thus, the primary concern of the Saemaul Movement is the cultivation of virtues such as diligence, self-help and co-operation.

Saemaul Education is intended to facilitate the promotion of the movement through the educational process. Hence, it revolves around out-of-school education–particularly for adults. Saemaul Education involves two dimensions: spiritual enlightenment and productive skills. The former ramifies into various activities designed to evolve a new system of values and behaviour. The latter is intended for equipping the people with productive skills and knowledge with which to raise their living standards.

The contents of its training programme consist of general theory and practice, with methods oriented towards experiential learning. Traditional imparting of knowledge is almost ruled out. The programme's contents, however, vary depending on the target population. At the initial stage of the Saemaul Movement, the educational programme was primarily concerned with producing community leaders. It has now expanded its scope to involve the rural masses with the consequent inclusion of productive skills as an essential component of the training programme. Saemaul Education offers two types of training: residential and motivative. The former requires that both teachers and trainees are placed in the same centre in a programme based on the sharing of experiences. The latter refers to orientation programmes of the Saemaul Movement which are integrated into other types of training. Skill training programmes are introduced as a motivating factor. The duration of residential training is usually two weeks. There are about 85 training centres of Saemaul Education; 36 of these are private and the others are operated by the government or government-supported agencies.

Saemaul Education Programme

Saemaul Education Centres are exclusively responsible for an intensive programme of Saemaul Education aimed at community leaders. They offer residential training.

Saemaul Leaders Training Institute. This Institute serves as a pacesetter for all programmes of Saemaul Education. Established in 1972, it is run by the Central Agency of Agricultural Co-operatives. The trainees include community leaders, ranking government officials, professors, high-level managers, journalists, national assemblymen, and men and women in leadership positions of social organizations.

The contents of the Institute's programme are largely divided into common and special subjects. The former consists of the philosophy of the Saemaul Movement, project planning and implementation and leadership training. Trainees may visit villages noted for exemplary work in the Saemaul Movement and engage in group discussions. The special subjects are flexible enough to allow for a variety of programmes.

Admission to the Institute is based on the positions of the trainees in their respective agencies and their demonstrated abilities of leadership, and not on diplomas or other academic qualifications. Hence, the major characteristic of this programme is the heterogeneity of trainees admitted under the banner of the Saemaul Movement.

Private centres for Saemaul Education. There are numerous private centres which offer Saemaul Education modelled after the Leaders Training Institute. Typical are those attached to the Associations of Saemaul Movement Organizations and those under the auspices of the Women's Service Corps. At the local level, Saemaul Education is offered by government training centres and Farmers Training Centres. Each year 40,000 people enrol on residential courses lasting between four and six days at these centres.

Saemaul Education for government officials. Since the Saemaul Movement was initiated by the government, it was necessary for government officials to have qualities of leadership. Middle and higher-level officials are obligated to receive Saemaul Education offered by the Central Government Officials Training Institute. For other government officials, training is carried out under the supervision of the concerned ministries. The contents of the training programme are the same as those of the Leaders Training Institute, except for the subjects specially required for them. The training centre trains 70,000 to 80,000 officials each year.

Saemaul Education in relation to other training. Apart from the intensive type of Saemaul Education, it is required that Saemaul Education be included as an essential element of other training programmes. Even in skill training programmes offered by industrial firms, Saemaul Education is given a substantial place as a spiritual guide to other components of learning. Such an integrated programme encourages the cultivation of learning attitudes.

Saemaul Education for citizens. Even with various training facilities available, many people, particularly in urban areas, are out of reach of Saemaul Education. Therefore, all existing mechanisms are used to the maximum for Saemaul Education. The citizens are categorized into general citizens, women and elderly people. For women, the citizens college operated by several private universities and mothers' clubs serves the purpose of Saemaul Education. The schools for elderly people which have mushroomed in recent years also play an important role in Saemaul Education for their target audience. The programme in general lasts four–five days. There are approximately 80 training centres of these kinds which train 100,000 people each year.

Saemaul Education for the rural population. Saemaul Education came as an abrupt imposition on the rural people. At first they resisted it and the lack of experience in planning and administration caused many problems. The educational programme at its inceptive stage was not so much about theories and methods of the Saemaul Movement as about heightening the people's consciousness of problems and irrationalities in their ways of living. It was achieved by cultivating diligence, self-help and co-operation.

To implement educational activities, the County Office organized a mobile team, which made the rounds of villages within the county, and this itinerary educational service was supplemented by the services of the Saemaul Information Unit. These mobile teams conducted one-day training courses in nearly 20,000 villages.

In 1977, Saemaul Education concentrated on the most backward villages. The education intended for these areas was extended to three-day, non-residential programmes designed to provide spiritual enlightenment and to meet the immediate needs of the people. This programme has covered 2,949 villages since 1977.

Saemaul schools. To raise the living standards of the rural population, in the context of the Saemaul Movement, vocational high schools offer a three-day training course for people of the community. When there is no vocational high school in a county, academic high schools assume the role. These are called Saemaul schools. Some of the programmes consist of residential training, but there is little difference in the content of the training programmes.

The contents of the training programme consist of spiritual enlightenment (15 per cent), productive skills (70 per cent) and others (15 per cent). Although emphasis is on productive skills training, people are taught about the Saemaul spirit, national security, economic development, population and family life education.

Before the Saemaul schools came into being, some selected schools had offered a four-five hour programme during vacations. This programme was primarily concerned with spiritual enlightenment, and the schools involved in it numbered nearly 2,000. The number of people who attended this programme between 1972 and 1974 was 1,087,395. With the advent of Saemaul schools the quality of training programmes has improved considerably. To supplement a shortage of training facilities the Saemaul class, modelled on the old four-hour training course, was created.

Table 1. Number of trainees attending Saemaul classes

	Total	1976	1977	1978
Number of Saemaul classes	27,413	9,232	8,949	9,232
Trained	2,432,333	768,264	797,856	866,213

Saemaul Education in factories. As the Saemaul Movement made its way into the factories, Saemaul Education gained prevalence. This was mainly because of the efforts of top-level managers who, having received Saemaul leadership training, were well aware of the necessity of exposing middle-level managers and plant workers to Saemaul Education.

The training programme in factories consists of a residential course which deals with the theory and practice of Saemaul Education, ethics of industrial relations, human relations, productive skills, quality control, field observation and group discussion. The duration of training ranges from three to seven days.

While large factories have the facilities capable of organizing such training, small and medium-size factories are not capable of conducting it. Therefore, the latter entrusts the training of their workers to the former. As the number of small and medium-size factories increased, it became imperative to have centres exclusively responsible for the training of factory workers and middle-level managers. The inauguration of the present two training centres—in Seoul and Busan—was considered a timely response to this emerging need. Saemaul Education in factories has increased in its scope as shown in the table below.

Table 2. Number of trainees attending Saemaul Education in factories

Target audiences	Total number trained	1974	1975	1976	1977	1978
Total	30,086	870	3,473	7,556	7,471	10,716
Managers	3,298	-	-	169	1,374	1,755
Workers	26,788	870	3,473	7,387	6,097	8,961

Problems and solutions

The major problems in the implementation of Saemaul Education and their solutions are as follows:

1. The programme of Saemaul Education appears to lack relevance to the needs and ability of individual trainees due to its uniform mode of instruction. To rectify this problem Saemaul Education should be more divergent so as to meet the needs of various target groups, and be varied according to age, occupation, locality, education attainment and sex.

2. Since Saemaul Education is intended for adults with divergent backgrounds, new teaching methods and instructional materials as well as media are required, if they are to be relevant to trainees' needs. Most teaching methods in the programmes are very conventional and mainly consist of lectures. New methods such as sensitivity training are sometimes used, but they are merely symbolic since most users are not familiar with them. Instructional materials and media are essential parts of the learning process. To ensure their relevance, it might be wise to set up an educational research institute responsible for the development of materials.

3. The conventional system of evaluation, which relied heavily on questionnaires, revealed limitations in assessing the relevance of the programmes in terms of knowledge acquisition and behavioural change. Such evaluation requires a series of follow-up studies. A scientific evaluation scheme based on modern theories of behavioural sciences should be developed.

4. The personnel currently employed in Saemaul Education lack professional competency. The institutional infrastructure for Saemaul Education leadership training should be overhauled so that staff may gain not only a better knowledge of and higher commitment to the Saemaul Movement but also an understanding of psychology. To recruit competent

staff, the provision of incentives should be considered in terms of salary, status and social recognition. Additionally, the heavy workload should be lightened and the time saved spent on studying ways to improve the programme.

5. The success of the programme largely depends on the participants' enthusiasm for Saemaul Education. In turn their degree of enthusiasm has much to do with the teaching methods and competency of the instructor. As much, however, is also ascribed to the attitudes of the trainees and the ways of operating the programme. This calls for reappraisal of deficiencies on both sides and necessary corrective measures. The trainees should be selected after they receive full information and materials on Saemaul Education so that they may be encouraged to voluntarily participate in the programme.

6. Although the Saemaul Education programmes are offered by various ministries, government agencies and voluntary educational organizations, little provision is made for a systematic and co-operative network among them. This results in duplication of programmes, giving rise to unnecessary administrative chores. This makes it more difficult to ensure consistency and to keep all educational programmes in a single vein. It would be desirable to institute a planning and co-ordinating body under the direct supervision of the Prime Minister. This organization might well be operated by a council represented by the concerned ministries. □

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SINGAPORE

by Young Pak Nang

Introduction

The Vocational and Industrial Training Board (VITB) of Singapore is the national authority for the development, provision and regulation of vocational and industrial training in Singapore, with concomitant responsibility for continuing education. It was established in April 1979 by the merger of the Adult Education Board (formed in April 1960), and the Industrial Training Board (formed in April 1973). The principal objects of the VITB are:

1. To provide for, promote, and regulate the training and apprenticeship of persons employed in or intending to be employed in commerce or industry, and to upgrade the skills of such persons by providing advanced training;
2. To establish the nature and length of the training and to decide to whom training should be given; and
3. To conduct such programmes of continuing education as may be required from time to time.

The VITB is therefore concerned with vocational preparation for work in commerce and industry at the skilled level, embracing the spectrum from artisan, junior technician and advanced craftsman to sub-professional.

Continuing education

One of the objects of the VITB is the provision of continuing education which includes all training and education activities provided on a part-time basis. Programmes are organized with the aims of making a worker more efficient and productive, a better citizen and a better individual. The VITB's role of continuing education is thus four-fold:

1. To provide development of skills and upgrading to workers in the industrial, commercial, applied arts and service sectors;
2. To provide academic education for workers and persons outside the formal education system who wish to further their education for career or personal advancement;

3. To provide training in language, namely, the official languages of Singapore and the foreign languages relevant to the economy of Singapore; and
4. To provide and promote continuing education programmes by other organizations relevant to the development and enrichment of the work-force and the population as a whole.

Accordingly, the VITB's continuing education efforts may be classified into four programmes: (a) skills development courses (industrial and commercial skills); (b) academic education courses; (c) language courses; and (d) personal enrichment courses. This paper deals with the VITB's operation in the area of industrial skills development courses for adult workers.

Certification and testing systems

Before the VITB's approach to industrial skills development is explained, it is necessary to explain briefly the certification and testing systems adopted by the Board. The VITB system of certification of industrial, service and applied arts skills was developed by the former Industrial Training Board. It offers three basic qualifications: Industrial Technician Certificate, National Trade Certificate, and Certificate of Competency.

The Industrial Technician Certificate programme is essentially a trade or craft-based programme with the addition of technician-level theoretical and laboratory training coupled with supervisory skill development. It is conducted over two years full-time or three years part-time for persons who have completed ten years of education. The National Trade certification system is designed to certify skills that have scope for development up to the level of a master craftsman. Under this system, a three-tier classification is adopted:

1. National Trade Certificate Grade I (NTC 1). This highly-skilled level, comparable to that of a master craftsman, is attained only after several years of experience and perfection in the skill.
2. National Trade Certificate Grade II (NTC 2). This is the skill level comparable to that of a fully-trained and competent craftsman and is normally attained on completion of apprenticeship or through a number of years of on-the-job experience.
3. National Trade Certificate Grade III (NTC 3). This is a semi-skilled level normally attained by a person who has completed basic training at a vocational institute or who has completed at least one year of an apprenticeship training programme.

The Certificate of Competency system is designed to establish standards and to certify skills which are narrow in scope and terminal in nature.

On the question of testing for the purpose of certification, full-time institutional trainees are assessed on the basis of their performance in their practical work and phase tests throughout their course of training. They are only required to sit for an end-of-course theory test. This system offers better monitoring of trainees' progress and provides for remedial action to be taken where necessary. Part-time trainees are required to sit for the public trade tests, comprising a practical test and a theory test. These public trade tests are also open to workers who have not attended part-time training, but who have in the course of their work acquired sufficient skills and technical knowledge in their trade area.

Public trade test applicants for the NTC 3 tests who have not attended a part-time course are required to take a screening test before they can be registered for the public trade tests. The object of the screening test is to ensure that only those who are adequately prepared for the tests are allowed to sit for them. This procedure eliminates waste of time and resources on candidates not ready to take the tests, and reduces the possibility of severe damage to expensive tools and equipment through poor handling.

Part-time skills development courses—the past

For many years, part-time skills development courses for workers were structured on training syllabuses converted from full-time programmes. They were generally of two years' duration. Part-time trainees were required to attend the entire course, and then sit for the end-of-course tests to qualify for the trade certificate. The criticisms that were levelled against these training programmes were:

1. The duration of the courses required sustained effort and commitment on the part of the worker for a few years. For various reasons, this was often not possible, resulting in a high casualty rate in the attendance.
2. The courses did not take into account the skills and technical knowledge acquired by the workers in the course of their work. Workers were required to attend the full course irrespective of the level of skills and knowledge already acquired on the job or through in-house training programmes.
3. The courses were made up of subjects which were distributed in content over a few years' duration. Lacking specificity in the learning objectives, the training forced the workers to go through

the entire course. They did not feel a sense of achievement until they had completed the entire course.

4. The course content made an artificial distinction between theory and practice. These two areas were taught separately, resulting in lack of integration. This did not permit proper co-ordination and sequencing in the learning aspects of the course.

Modular system of training

To overcome the limitations of the part-time training system, the VITB in January 1980 restructured its curricula into modules of employable skill. The main characteristics of the modular system of training are as follows:

1. Each modular unit is a self-contained learning programme;
2. Each modular unit represents an acceptable division in the organization of work within a job;
3. Each modular unit constitutes a significant amount of learning; and
4. The worker has a defined goal from which he derives a sense of accomplishment on completing the module.

The advantages derived from adopting the modular system are threefold. Firstly, a worker need enrol only for the modules in which he lacks the skill or knowledge, thereby shortening the training time. Secondly, a person working on a job calling for narrow skills can choose to upgrade himself in these skills only, if he so desires. Thirdly, a worker who is unable to attend a course of training for a long continuous period because of the nature of his work can pick up from where he left off when he is again able to resume his training.

Characteristics of a module of employable skill

A module of employable skill is a comprehensive training programme consisting of a set of modular units (or sometimes of only one modular unit), which leads to the acquisition of identified employment qualifications. It is a specific answer to a particular training need, and is conditioned by prevailing or potential employment opportunities and qualifications. These training needs are also conditioned by social, cultural, economic and other considerations which have to be taken into account. The mix of modular units which go to make up a module of employable skill varies considerably, depending on the trade or course of training. Every module of employable skill has its own training objective.

As a worker proceeds from one modular unit to another within a module of employable skill, there are inevitably some points at which there is a loss of learning owing to the lack of retention. At the same time, there is some interaction between the various elements in the learning process, leading to reinforcement and a different level of understanding compared with that which takes place within one single modular unit. The advantages gained from this are exploited. Progress checks at pre-determined intervals may be carried out in order to measure the worker's learning progression and comprehension of the whole as well as the parts. Where appropriate, these are made self-evaluation checks.

There is no end-of-module test when a worker has completed a module of training. The module is used only to prepare the worker to take the public trade test. He is free to select and attend only the modules in which he lacks the practical skills or theoretical knowledge. A worker who has attended at least one module is exempted from having to sit for the screening test when he registers for the public trade test. He is regarded as having attained a level which is adequate for him to handle machinery and equipment without the risk of misusing them.

Retraining of workers and evaluation

The modular approach is amply suited and widely applicable to the retraining of unskilled or semi-skilled workers whose skills have become obsolete or redundant owing to changes in technology and the economic structure of the country. Workers recognize the benefits and advantages of the modular system of training as an effective means of retraining. In 1979, at the request of the labour movement, the VITB launched a pilot project to provide industrial training to workers in non-technical occupations and low-wage jobs. The object of the scheme was to retrain these workers with no technical background (such as office attendants and clerks) to take on skilled (technical) occupations. Each module was of one year's duration (on a part-time basis) as against six months for workers already employed in relevant occupations. On completion of one module, the workers could switch over to technical jobs, and continue the training on other modules at an accelerated pace.

The modular system of training is still in its infancy in Singapore. The VITB is closely monitoring this new approach to training, introduced less than a year ago. It is too early to say at this stage if this approach is effective, but the response and feedback so far has been very encouraging. □

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SOCIALIST REPUBLIC OF VIET NAM

by Le Son

Introduction

Since the early days of national independence, the Vietnamese government has attached great importance to adult education by promoting the literacy campaign and the movement for complementary education of the employees, young people and the working masses.

Adult education in the Socialist Republic of Viet Nam is meant to bring enlightenment to all walks of life with a view to carrying on the intellectual and ideological liberation of the working people. This in turn means the execution of educational equality as only a minority of people could formerly afford to get education, and now in the new regime all are entitled to instruction to become educated people.

Adult education is aimed at encouraging people to train to become all-round workers. The workers should not only work to earn their daily bread but apply what they have learned in their daily life to improve their living conditions and set sound relations between the individual and the family, and between the family and society. Adult education should help to promote social development, the historical evolution of the nation and the firm defence of national independence and freedom. The long-term benefits are the transformation of the old society and construction of a new, just and prosperous society.

One of the important goals of adult education is to promote production and economic development. An illiterate working man usually does his work by experience. An educated working man is apt to organize his work better, improve his working conditions to secure a higher productivity, and apply modern scientific and technological know-how to production so as to improve the national economy. Adult education in the Socialist Republic of Viet Nam has another major task to perform that of training the workers and peasants. Formerly the majority of them were illiterate and now adult education is faced with the task of providing them with the knowledge and skills needed to perform their work efficiently. Instruction has to be provided at district and village levels and this will lead to an improvement in the living conditions in the countryside. Last but not least adult education has a major role to play in training the youth who are the future of the nation. On the one hand the young are directly given instruction, while on the other, the knowledge imparted to the parents, indirectly has a beneficial effect on the young.

Achievements

Basing itself on these fundamental viewpoints over the past 35 years adult education in the Socialist Republic of Viet Nam has experienced steady development and recorded considerable achievements. It has made more than 90 per cent of the illiterate working people literate–a total of more than 15 million people. Adult education following literacy has brought complementary education to millions of people. At present seven provinces have achieved universal primary education of a population of ten million people. Adult education has brought further complementary education to hundreds and thousands of employees. Of these more than 60,000 have finished their upper secondary education and are now carrying on their studies at various universities, colleges and vocational secondary schools.

Today there is a large network of schools and classes for adult learners which reaches almost every part of the land, both urban and rural areas, and annually enrols about 1.5 million people in on-the-job and full-time courses. Various types of curricula, syllabuses and textbooks have been compiled to meet the demands of all types of learners, from literacy to primary and secondary education, lower and upper levels. They have often been improved for fundamentality, simplicity and practicality. Special efforts have been made to bring the fundamentals of technology, economic management and so on into the syllabuses of adult education with a view to meeting the goals of the adult learners and improving their living conditions.

In the Vietnamese situation adult education has served other purposes as well. For instance, adult education has made certain contributions to training and fostering hundreds of thousands of employees and cadres sprung from the working class and the peasantry thus helping to consolidate the state apparatus from the grass-roots upwards. The complementary education syllabuses have helped to heighten the working people's political consciousness and patriotism. The fundamentals of science and technology have, to some extent, helped raise the nation's military skills during the two protracted wars of resistance.

Adult education has also helped the people to emerge from the darkness of illiteracy and build an educated society. Over the past 35 years, changes in the rural areas have been greatly marked. The old society with more than 90 per cent of the population illiterate has been transformed.

Nowadays in almost all of the villages there are information halls, rediffusion networks and newspaper-boards. From the individual way of farming, the peasants have advanced to the collective way of working and living with each other in unity and fraternity.

Economically adult education has helped promote production by arming the working people with scientific and technological fundamentals. It is due to complementary education that tens of thousands could easily understand technical problems and improve their skills. The army of technical workers, previously small, now totals millions and many of its members are now capable of applying modern techniques and operating modern machines.

In the rural areas, the role played by complementary education is more marked. Thanks to the high cultural standards, the Vietnamese peasants have advanced from the stage of using rudimentary farm-tools to the stage of handling improved and mechanized implements in agricultural production such as ploughing machines, threshing machines, pumping machines and food-processing machines. Now they know how to apply various types of chemical fertilizers, micro-biological fertilizers, azolla, insecticides, pesticides and herbicides, and plant short-term high-yielding rice varieties and breed high-yield hybrids.

Thousands of village work-and-study complementary education schools for young people have become cultural and technical centres where youngsters improve their knowledge and learn the fundamentals of science and technology before applying them in practical production. Often a class plays the role of a production team, assuming heavy tasks in irrigation, selection of seeds and the preparation of green fertilizer and azolla for the farming co-operative.

Formerly the plant yield and animal productivity were very low. The output of rice in each crop was about one ton per hectare. The maximum weight per hog was 50-60 kilogrammes. Today, the rice output is 2.5 to 3 tons a hectare per crop and hogs weighing more than 100 kilogrammes are not rare. Other crops like corn and cassava give much higher yields. Thanks to the increased yield, there is no serious food problem even though the population has doubled during the past 35 years. One direct factor responsible for the high yields and productivity is the working people's improved cultural standards. These create favourable conditions to apply advanced farming techniques in agricultural production.

Culturally, adult education has had direct effects on the people's way of life and attitudes. Nowadays, the rural population often show a concern for changes in the world as well as in the country. Many of them have become accustomed to reading newspapers and listening to broadcasts on current events. Greater attention is being paid to hygiene: the digging of wells, the building of bathrooms and using two-piece toilets. They consult doctors for illnesses and diseases while superstitions and false beliefs are, to a large extent, on the decline. Stillbirths and infant mortality have been considerably reduced in many rural areas. Such social ills as drug addiction, drinking, gambling and prostitution have greatly decreased. Instead of child marriage and arranged marriage, young people are encouraged to freely select their partners and both sexes are considered equal in all matters.

There are about 60 nationalities in the Socialist Republic of Viet Nam with the Viets as the majority people. Many ethnic minorities, live in the mountainous areas and were formerly subjected to backward living conditions with low cultural and economic standards. Since the end of colonialism, the Vietnamese government has actively brought enlightenment to the mountainous regions. Though still meeting with difficulties, many mountainous localities have made much progress. Quite a few mountainous provinces have achieved literacy and seen tremendous changes in the way of life and many bad customs and habits have been eliminated. Several mountainous localities are making efforts to catch up with the plains in all respects.

Conclusion

It is clear from the above facts that the social, cultural and economic developments in the Socialist Republic of Viet Nam are linked to a certain extent to the adult education movement. During the past few decades the government has not hesitated to spend its budget on adult education for any investment in education in general and adult education in particular produces quick beneficial results. □

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SRI LANKA

by R. Wijedasa

Introduction

As in most developing countries, the high population growth rate in Sri Lanka has made young people a key element in the development process. It has been found, however, that the education system has not, until recently, been able to provide a system that is both practical and relevant. In the past formal schools marked by selectivity and exclusion often tended to have rigidly defined curricula oriented towards mobility in the urban sector. This dysfunctional nature of the education system very often forced the primary and secondary school-leavers to migrate to urban areas in search of employment which was hard to find and they ultimately joined the ranks of the unemployed. Although some perceived themselves as part of an educated 'elite' and were unwilling to accept low paid jobs, the urban economy could not absorb large numbers of rural migrants. Additionally, the theoretical nature of the formal curriculum did not prepare young people particularly well to participate in the urban production process or to be self-sufficient in rural areas.

This situation led to criticism of an education system that was irrelevant to local needs producing graduates with inadequate skills, unrealistic aspirations and a 'white collar' mentality. Hence the development planners increasingly turned their attention to non-formal education and adult education programmes. Existing vocational programmes are now being expanded and new programmes funded to provide technical training and to foster a sense of commitment to rural areas.

The Sri Lankan education system has a high participation ratio at the initial stages followed by a steadily increasing drop-out rate in the higher primary and secondary classes. In addition to this the incidence of children not attending school becomes a cause for concern.

Drop-out rates by grade

Grades	Rates
I–V	44.6 per cent
VI–X	16.8 " "
X (after 'O' level examination)	28.9 " "
XI–XII	8.9 " "

This vast array of school drop-outs and certificated unemployed youths has posed a threat to the stability of the country. This was clearly shown by the student insurrection of 1971 which at one time took the form of a violent attempt to overthrow the existing government. Throughout the past three decades the policy-makers and educational planners have taken several steps to revamp the system so as to obtain maximum efficiency. One of these measures was curricular reforms. This was most sustained and intensified in subjects like science and mathematics. The whole curriculum of the primary and secondary levels was restructured in order to align the education system to the social needs of the country.

This relevancy was all the more emphasized in the sphere of technical education as the country had to satisfy the growing needs of an expanding economy. These training programmes typically combined some form of academic and technical education in situations that closely resemble actual working conditions. In addition, these programmes place a high priority on developing positive attitudes towards work and a commitment to development. The introduction of such programmes has enabled Sri Lanka to satisfy its manpower needs while enabling the youth to play a vital role in the development efforts of the country.

Technical units programme

In order to help the large number of school-leavers and also to meet the demand for skilled personnel, the Ministry of Education started a technical and vocational training programme for school-leavers. This began in 1973 as a part-time technical training programme and expanded in 1977 to become a nationwide Technical Education Unit Programme. It now consists of a full-time technical education unit programme and a part-time technical education unit programme for school-leavers and drop-outs.

Full-time technical education unit programme

The objectives of this programme are:

1. To train school-leavers for self-employment;
2. To impart skills to school-leavers enabling them to find jobs in the public and private sectors;
3. To reduce frustration among youth and thereby promote social harmony;
4. To reduce migration of talent in technical work from the rural sector to the urban sector;
5. To instil correct attitudes which would enable young people to participate fully in development work; and
6. To promote the use of traditional technology and local raw materials wherever it is appropriate.

Under this programme one or two units are organized in each electorate. These are attached to schools which are centrally situated and have workshops, science and agriculture laboratories and other facilities. The school principal is in overall charge of the unit and he is assisted by a teacher who is appointed as the organizing instructor of the unit. The teacher is a technically qualified member of the staff or has the experience and ability to organize this type of work. Visiting instructors are appointed from among technically qualified personnel or from very experienced craftsmen or technicians.

An Advisory Board under the chairmanship of the local member of Parliament is set up. The circuit education officer, the school principal, the regional director of education and other government officers are members of the Board which must at least include four members from among industrialists, experienced technicians, craftsmen and entrepreneurs. The Board is expected to help the unit select suitable areas of training, prepare training schedules, select instructors and trainees and provide buildings and equipment.

The equipment available in the school is used after normal hours. The Ministry of Education provides an allocation for the purchase of additional equipment. Recently steps have been taken to obtain Swedish International Development Authority (SIDA) aid to equip some of these centres. This equipment could also be used by the school pupils in the study of technical subjects. Areas of training are selected to suit the employment opportunities available. Training schedules are prepared by the instructors except in a few areas where the Ministry prepares them. Training schedules are approved by the Ministry and the appointments and payment to instructors are made by the regional directors of education who supervise these units.

Each course consists of three hours of training done each day for five days a week for six months. Special care is taken to conduct five or more hours of practical lessons for each hour of theory. The trainees have to bear the cost of raw materials and of the repair and maintenance of equipment. To meet the urgent need for trained personnel for the building trade, such as carpenters, masons, electricians, plumbers and welders, a special programme of training for three days a week is now being worked in some units. Each unit has to send a monthly report which contains the daily attendance, special work done, descriptions of items produced and sales and products.

Innovative and special features

The Technical Education Unit Programme uses existing school equipment to a very large extent. In general Sri Lankan schools have been provided with workshops, laboratories and special rooms to teach technical and science subjects. These have been equipped at a very high cost. Normally this equipment is used for about four hours a day during week days. It is unused for about 20 hours a day and also during week-ends and school vacations. The Technical Education Unit programme is using this equipment for technical and vocational training and makes full use of the existing facilities for the benefit of the country.

There is a large number of technically qualified teachers as well as other teachers who are practical craftsmen. This programme allows them to teach a craft and earn an additional income as well as to contribute towards national development. It has for the first time a large number of craftsmen and technicians who are given the opportunity to undertake an organized training programme to an educated clientele.

Schools are now engaged in conducting programmes that directly benefit the youth of the country. The programmes have allowed school-leavers and unemployed youth to return to school and have helped most of them to find jobs. Thus they have improved the status of the principal and the staff in the eyes of the public and brought the school and community closer together.

The programme has been extended to help employed persons increase their technical knowledge and improve their employment prospects. The courses are normally held in the evenings or during week-ends or holidays.

Evaluation has shown that up to 1976 more than 40 per cent of those trained became self-employed. A survey conducted in 1976 showed that it cost only Rs. 163* to place a trainee in employment under this scheme. This is a very low figure and the comparative expenditure in other short-term programmes for employment runs into thousands of rupees.

Problems and solutions

Surveys show that the Technical Education Unit Programme is not without its problems. To remedy the programme's shortcomings, the following proposals are now being considered:

1. Organize a crash programme to start more than one full-time unit in an electorate and open a network of part-time units within two to three years.
2. Attract school-leavers to the training programme by granting them a daily allowance.

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* Approximately 20.60 Sri Lankan Rupees (Rs.) = One US dollar.

3. Lower the age of enrolment to 15 years.
4. Provide for the supply of (a) additional equipment as the programme expands; (b) new equipment such as welding plants and drill lathes to meet the needs of new training demands; and (c) consumable materials.
5. Appoint a competent person to organize the monitoring and supervision of the technical units programme in each district.
6. Raise the rates of pay for instructors.
7. Evolve techniques for the evaluation of these programmes at district level.
8. Provide nationally-recognized certificates of competence for those who successfully complete their training so that they can present themselves for any test of trade skills by an employer.

Adult education centres

These were started in 1977 with a view to providing information about improved agricultural, health, vocational and other practices. This new venture by the Ministry of Education was mainly directed at the rural masses with the aim of improving their conditions so that they could contribute more effectively in the development programmes of the country. It is an attempt to marshal the resources and potentials of local communities to improve the living standards of the community. This programme is being implemented on an electorate basis by adult education officers with multi-agency participation by public sector institutions, the private sector and by voluntary organizations. Each programme takes the form of lectures, discussions, workshops and field visits conducted for the benefit of specific groups. The content of the programme varies with the needs and problems peculiar to each group. The content includes vocational guidance, general knowledge, general information, health, short-term skills training and environmental problems. This scheme is now being implemented in 140 of the 160 electoral divisions of the island. ☐

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THAILAND

by Mohamed Abdul Kadir

Introduction

In 1965 Unesco sponsored the International Conference of Ministers of Education on the Eradication of Illiteracy. To achieve this goal the participants of the Conference, held in Iran, devised different strategies. The primary aim, however, was to teach illiterate adults how to read and write. Thailand has interpreted its approach as *Kanseuksa Phuyai Baed Bedsed* or Functional Literacy and Family Life Planning (FLFLP). The aim is to help adults develop an attitude of critical thinking through group discussion techniques. A great deal of information is shared, so that individual apprehensions and difficulties can be cleared up, and some group consensus can be reached. Instruction in reading and writing therefore becomes a by-product rather than the main object.* The rationale behind it is that men in all societies have, since the beginning of time, learned about what is happening through conversation. The communication of knowledge and events by word of mouth has always been and remains today one of the chief methods of education throughout the world.

In 1968, Thailand launched its pilot project on FLFLP in Lampang in the northern part of the country. In this first attempt several difficulties and obstacles were encountered. Among these was the fact that the content of the reading materials did not stimulate vigorous discussion; teachers could only teach by lectures and participants were bored and did not see their own progress. In June 1970 the World Education organization invited a group of Thai educators and health officials to an Inter-Regional Workshop on FLFLP, held in India. After the conference, a careful study was conducted and corrections and improvements to the project were made.

In February 1972 the Division of Adult Education sent a group of representatives to discuss the possibility of expanding the programme to Region 2 in the south of Thailand. Two months later a group of five educational supervisors from Region 2, jointly sponsored by the Regional Education Office and World Education, left Yala to observe the on-going project in Lampang and Chiangmai. The group held meetings with the

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* Kowit Vorapipatana. *A Thai functional literacy and family life planning class.* Bangkok, Division of Adult Education, Ministry of Education, n.d., p. 1–2 (typewritten).

Director of the Adult Education Division and the Deputy Director of the General Education Department, both before and after its study tour of the area. It observed that some teachers still taught adults the way they taught children while others could not properly organize and lead group discussions. The group recommended improvements in teachers' training as well as a revision of the teachers' manual to help Thailand train teachers in FLFLP.

Preparation of materials and testing approaches

The people in Region 2 are of two different cultural and ethnic backgrounds. The Buddhists, who speak the Thai language, live predominantly in urban areas and are mostly government officials. The Muslims, whose dialect is Malay, live in rural areas and work as fishermen or farmers, growing rubber trees, fruit trees and rice. The major cultural differences include beliefs, values, language, food, dress and pattern of social interaction. The illiterate adults can be classified into three categories: those who cannot read and write Thai but speak the language; those who cannot read and write Thai but read and write some Malay or Arabic and their native dialect is Malay; and those who can neither read nor write any of the languages and speak only Malay. The third category constitutes the largest of all the groups.

Since villagers in Region 2 speak Malay as their native language it is necessary to develop unique materials and methods for teaching literacy skills in Thai. The secretary of the project has compiled two books, titled *How to change human behaviour* and *Adult education in Thailand,* to serve as handbooks for adult education practitioners in Region 2 and also for distribution to educational institutions all over the country. The cost of printing was borne by the Asia Foundation. Regarding strategy for teaching Thai as a second language, 30 lessons were developed in an effort to experiment with both monolingual and bi-lingual approaches. Consequently a bi-lingual approach was found to be significantly superior to other linguistic methods of teaching Thai to the villagers in southern Thailand.

After an extensive discussion with officials from the Department of General Education, Division of Adult Education, and Office of Education in Region 2, some guidelines relevant to the needs and conditions in the south, were agreed upon. Officials from Region 2 together with officials from the Department of General Education then designed questionnaires for baseline surveys of professions, economy, health, and attitudes toward family life planning and civic responsibilities. A survey was carried out between January and March 1973 and 1,200 people from provinces in Region 2 were interviewed.

After the materials had been prepared and approaches tested, an operational seminar in developing a curriculum was held. The aim was to analyse the data obtained from the villagers, rubber tappers, rice growers and fishermen on the one hand and the local government officials, policemen, bank managers and judges on the other. During 10-20 September, a subsequent operational seminar was organized to develop reading materials in which a team of supervisors from Region 2 and some personnel from Region 8 and Region 11 participated as observers. Reading materials were designed to present real-life conditions, problems and alternatives for further discussions which were considered to be a crucial part of the FLFLP programme. During the first week of October 1973, another operational seminar was held to develop teachers' manuals and loose-leaf exercise materials in the Thai language and arithmetic.

Selecting a location and instructors

To select the location for the project, a working committee from Region 2 held a meeting with the Director of the Adult Education Division and a representative from the Budget Bureau. It was agreed that the first pilot project would start with ten classes and it should be in one area. This would facilitate an evaluation which would not only examine participants' ability in reading and writing but also determine how their lives had improved and how the programme effected the community as a whole. The area was required to have a sufficient number of illiterate adults for ten classes and not be too difficult to visit and supervise.

The Adult Education Division Director suggested that emphasis should be placed on teaching concepts so the participants could feel they had benefited from the first session they attended. The Budget Bureau representative added that a selective religious content might also be considered to motivate participants and also remind them that by the end of the programme they should be able to speak and communicate in Thai. The Committee welcomed and acknowledged the suggestions. It also agreed that the ideal instructors would comprise day teachers and local administrative and religious leaders. Ten would do the teaching with five people in reserve as promoters.

The teachers and promoters were selected with the approval of the district education officer, the principal of Sanor Village School and the village headman. World Education sent a representative to help staff of the Region 2 Education Office design a teacher's workshop and a very careful and extensive training programme, including the development of training materials, was prepared. The aim of the workshop was to provide the staff with training and demonstration techniques for teaching the FLFLP programme. Reading assignments and discussions also helped participants gain more insight into the programme. This practice of training teachers by using the same methods and techniques they were expected to apply in working with the villagers proved to be quite successful.

Public relations

A successful FLFLP programme depends upon the public's proper understanding of why there is a need for such a programme. An extensive public relations campaign is, therefore, essential. Thus, a television show was arranged in which the group of prospective teachers was given the chance to explain about the FLFLP and what good it could bring to the participants and the community. Public relations literature was sent to high-ranking officials, newspapers and radio stations and Mobile Educational Movie Units were utilized to show films about the programme and inform people of the dates and places of classes.

Conclusion

One day before inauguration of the classes, teachers were called to meet and discuss miscellaneous items and review teaching steps in an attempt to make sure that the programme got off to a good start. Attending the inauguration were officials from the Region 2 Office of Education, Pattani provincial supervisory unit and Jarang district. Nearly all the classes appeared to be running smoothly and participants were enthusiastically involved.

After the ten experimental classes proved successful, the Yala Lifelong Education Centre extended the FLFLP programme. The centre conducted nine classes in 1976, ten classes in 1977, 30 classes in 1978, 50 classes in 1979 and 55 classes in 1980–a total of 159 classes and 4,652 participants. Some special activities were added to reinforce teaching and learning motivation. These were: 194 community assemblies; 557 class visits; 55 teachers' meetings; one Thai writing contest; one National Anthem singing contest; and one best teacher award scheme.

Activities in relation to community development from the FLFLP students were: (1) 43 projects completed in the area of health and livelihood such as home beautification, campaigns for sanitary toilets, and family life planning; (2) 119 projects in helping village elementary schools such as fencing and building desks, stools, and additional temporary classrooms; (3) 379 projects completed in the area of civic responsibilities such as building roads, cleaning public places (mosques, tomb compounds) shelters, and newspaper reading centres.

The FLFLP programme properly conducted in accordance with its philosophy and objectives can be a great contribution to socio-economic and cultural development of this country. □

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FIJI

by Ratu Osea Gavidi

Introduction

The *Yavubuli* rural youth movement originated in August 1978 as a resource centre to initiate awareness about the complex socio-economic and environmental problems faced by the rural people of the pine reafforestation scheme, the exposed coastal people of the tourist sector and the market-oriented sugarcane and agricultural people of the Province of Nadroga/Navosa in Fiji. A group of young people collected on the land offered by the *Yadrili* tribe next to the Nabou Pine Station. Through discussion and experimentation they worked out their needs and opportunities committing themselves to living together for two years during which they hoped to pave a way for a more sensible form of village development.

The plan and details of the movement were meant to remain flexible and open to interpretation which was advantageous when the Centre became overwhelmed by more than 150 under-employed school-leavers looking for ways to fit into the development process of Fiji. It was realized that there was a problem area needing immediate attention, which, if properly channelled, could be the catalyst for rural development as well as being a potential and untapped asset or resource.

The need

The boys and girls aged 14–24 come from the 120 villages that make up the Province of Nadroga/Navosa. More than 80 per cent of them have completed Form Four standard of schooling and come from villages which are traditionally supported by subsistence economies and which have gradually allowed the economies of tourism, pine reafforestation, sugarcane and agriculture to enter their lives by choice, force or circumstance. They have some land to fall back on but share a common feeling that no channels are open to fully employ their potential meaningfully—in a way that will not contradict their cultural standards, that is suitable to the village setting of resources, needs and opportunities.

Generally, they all divide their time among three activities varying in length according to the particular project concerned and their individual interests. These include: (1) Learning activities, (2) Community service, and (3) Capital accumulation.

The three activities are not mutually exclusive since often they overlap. Sometimes their form of Community Service is also a learning activity as a new skill is practised or a new awareness is developed. In the process of accumulating capital, or earning money to start their own projects in their respective villages, new skills are learnt and in some cases the work serves to alleviate some community problem.

Learning activities

The main theme of learning is *relevance.* All learning is concerned with either creating awareness or finding solutions to particular problems of the village; for instance, alcoholism, cultural decay, lack of motivation or commitment to development, social change, nutrition, sanitation, alienation through various institutions, processes such as belief systems and education.

Another aim in learning is the acquisition of new skills to solve these problems. These skills include technical knowledge of carpentry, mechanics, sewing, home economics, better farming, and administrative skills such as book-keeping, co-operative law and consumer studies.

Human relations skills are a recognized need to enable youth to become initiators of social change and creators of awareness in their villages. Attention is given to leadership training, religious studies, transcendental meditation and the awareness of the meaning and correct practices of their own culture.

Much of the learning is acquired through working on projects which require a particular skill–such as building a house, constructing a sea wall, helping a plumber install taps or sewerage, repairing a village truck or outboard engine, or making a dress. Certain carpenters have been employed to work with the youth because of their personality and patience. A variety of Fijians come in for a short-term to work informally with the youth on particular projects or take a few of them along on their regular work. Other forms of learning include short formal courses focusing on a particular skill such as book-keeping, photography, goat or pig-raising and first aid. Various government departments have been willing to conduct short-term courses on request.

Various non-governmental organizations such as the Young Women's Christian Association, the South Pacific Commission, and the Fiji National Youth Council have been invaluable to the *Yavubuli* youth programme. The Australian branch of the Freedom from Hunger Campaign and the Australian Council of Churches have also contributed towards the *Yavubuli* project by helping to finance a four-room science block, accommodation, a fishing boat and a vehicle. Resource personnel generously devote their own time, experience and knowledge to take part in problem-oriented informal discussions or seminars with the youth. These include teachers, policemen, magistrates, health workers, village elders, church people and doctors.

The youths are constantly urged to keep sight of certain priorities to which they have committed themselves such as personal development, service to their communities, adherence to the principles of appropriate technology, respect and preservation of the physical environment and pride in their culture.

Community service

All the members are deeply committed to trying to find solutions to the problems of their respective rural villages. These problems can be viewed from different focuses but they are integrated and any solution must take note of the interrelationships and the shared causes.

Some problems can be attacked physically. For instance, to assist in the reconstruction of village life in a tourist-ruined island, the youths helped build hurricane-proof houses in the village of Yaro which is the home of the owners of native land leased by a large tourist resort company. In another example, the youths helped build a sea-wall at Yadua village which had been continually inundated by tidal waves. Seven other village sea-walls need to be constructed quickly but development has been delayed because of lack of funds to buy materials such as cement.

Other difficulties involve creating an awareness amongst village people of their role in development–and the sources of problems with their possible solutions–by penetrating the value systems of people. The youths are now engaged in developing a non-formal education network in the province, working towards the setting up of local resource centres in the various shires (or *Tikina Makawa* as they are known in Fijian) and translating materials into dialects. They are also working on the Nadroga/Navosa language magazine *Rogo mai Bito* and travelling around the various resource centres in the villages armed with audio-visual materials to stimulate informal discussions promoting awareness of the complexities of village development. There is also an attempt to establish a community radio station for the purpose of local development, education and mobilization of goods and manpower. This, however has met with government scepticism.

Constant participation of *Yavubuli* in community affairs may lead to greater awareness and enthusiasm amongst village people so they can help themselves rather than rely on government aid. Hence the concept of *self-reliance* has to become the key objective in development. The presence of youth in development, particularly in community work, becomes an enlightening experience that should constantly alert people as to the usefulness of youth and the concern people should have for one another.

Accumulation of capital

An important part of the *Yavubuli* project is to provide opportunities for the youths to earn income and then to help them channel any savings into a business which will give them self-sufficiency on their return to the village. The concepts and principles of co-operatives are currently under the scrutiny of the youths to gauge whether they are flexible enough for the novel approach of a group of under-employed youths who band together from different parts of the province with the aim of mutual assistance to reach their goals.

There are several ways by which the youths will earn money. A savings account is opened for each member that is non-withdrawable until he/she leaves the co-operative and provided he/she has stayed two years. Savings can only be drawn for establishment or developmental purposes of the member: that is to purchase a fishing boat, farm machinery, a business vehicle, or land. *Yavubuli* will endeavour to assist in guaranteeing a loan or providing a bonus at the start of a member's business venture.

Recently an agreement was made with the *Lami Movement* to use their credit-building facility in order to help *Yavubuli* members not only save money but also assert their own credibility. The *Lami Movement* provides the initially small but significant capital base of F $20* for members to borrow in order to provide themselves with their basic needs. They deposit the interest before withdrawing the principal loan which they have to repay before further borrowing can take place. If for some reason a member cannot repay his/her loan then the *Lami Movement* assists in paying that off from the accumulated interest and the member is then free to borrow again. Hopefully group psychology or conscience will play a part in motivating people to honour their loan obligations. The *Lami Movement* has developed this loan concept over the last 20 years.

Work in the *Yavubuli* small-industries such as fishing boats and T-shirt printing and others in the planning stages will hopefully allow some distribution of profits to each individual member which can go towards his/her savings account. A bakery, tomato patch, fruit tree nursery, piggery, poultry farm, sewing and tour guiding schemes are some of the other economic projects presently envisaged.

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* Approximately Fiji $0.857 = One US dollar.

Since *Yavubuli* has had wide acceptance and popularity in the community there are many types of contract work available to members including cane-cutting, pine-planting, nursery-potting and building. From their earnings the members contribute one half to *Yavubuli* (for food and toiletries which have always been provided by the Movement), one quarter is deposited in the member's savings account and one quarter is for the member to spend. Members have been told to bring their cattle, goats, pigs and poultry, and together, when fencing is ready, rear them for slaughter and sale to pine-scheme workers in the area. The same system of earnings allocation will become operative here also.

Many chiefs and tribes have offered *Yavubuli* land for agriculture or waters for fishing or other resources sometimes to *Yavubuli* as a group and sometimes to individual members from their respective tribes. These resources will be worked communally and the proceeds shared in the above manner.

Anticipated result

If all goes according to plan,the members, after their period in *Yavubuli*, will return to their respective villages with the motivation, discipline, training, skills and capital to ensure that they have a good chance of success in establishing a business. Those villages which have a large number of *Yavubuli* members have the possibility of pooling their resources–both training and capital–into a new co-operative *Yavubuli*-type venture.

The effect that *Yavubuli* is having on the members who have come together is already visible to their families and communities. The ideal situation is reached when a member becomes not only self-reliant but also influential in the process of making members of the community self-reliant as well. □

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HONG KONG

by Therese Shak

Introduction

Hong Kong located at the south-eastern shore of China near the mouth of the Pearl River in Kwangtung province, has only 404 square miles including the New Territories and outlying islands. It has a population of more than four million. Hong Kong Island has been a British Colony since 1842 and the New Territories together with the 235 islands were leased to Great Britain for 99 years in 1898. The growth of population has been effected as follows since World War II:

Year	Population	
1939	1,600,000	Japanese invaded Canton
1941-1945	600,000	Japanese invaded Hong Kong
1946	–	Peace returned
1948-1949	1,800,000	Founding of People's Republic of China; population doubled in half a year
1950	2,360,000	Influx of refugees
1961	3,133,113	Mass exodus of refugees from Kwangtung province
1966	3,716,400) 3,936,630)	43 per cent by immigration; mostly illegal
1976	4,312,710	Inflow continuous
1980	5,000,000 (approx.)	

Literacy situation

Official census figures for 1976 showed that one out of seven people above the age of 15 had never been to school, and two out of seven had attended primary school. The influx of refugees between 1960 to 1976 may have been one of the constituting factors for illiteracy. The situation is further aggravated by the recent constant influx of refugees and illegal immigrants. Despite these statistics it remains true that since World War II it has only been the constant efforts of the Hong Kong Government to provide education that has successfully kept the 'no schooling' figure as low as it is.

Educational Attainment 1976

Age group	Attainment	Number	Percentage of total population 4,312,710	
15 and over	No school	608,140	14.1)	
15 and over	Lower Primary	440,500	10.2)	42
15 and over	Upper Primary	761,770	17.7)	
15 and over	Lower Secondary	281,920	6.5	
15 and over	Upper Secondary	411,020	9.5	
20 and over	Matriculation	69,290	1.6	
20 and over	Undergraduate	23,020	0.5	
20 and over	U. graduates	74,110	1.7	
			61.8	

Government policy

The Hong Kong government began providing free primary education to children in 1971 and three additional years of free education to secondary students were introduced in 1978. The Education Department focuses its activities on full-time formal and vocational educational programmes leaving the bulk of adult education activities to be shouldered by social welfare and educational voluntary agencies.

Organizations offering courses for adults may be grouped into:

1. Government. Adult Education Section and Technical Institutes under the Education Department;
2. Autonomous institutes. Extramural departments of the two universities and the polytechnic offering part-time (day release/evening) courses;
3. Voluntary agencies.
4. Private evening colleges and schools. Profit and non-profit making.

In terms of levels, literacy programmes and secondary education are offered by the government and voluntary agencies; vocational and post-secondary courses are offered by all four groups; whereas courses of a professional nature and courses of a higher academic attainment are only offered by the two universities and the polytechnic. Short courses account for the great majority of the total number of courses available. Structured courses (mostly of one or two years duration leading to certificates or a public examination) feature prominently in secondary, vocational and professional courses. The great majority of courses are still being taught in the classrooms. There are, however, a growing number of courses being offered by other means. Multi-media delivery has been experimented with and the essential components are television, radio, correspondence, tape cassette, programmed texts, telephone, newspaper and face-to-face teaching. Various combinations have been used for a range of subject matters.

A conservative estimate of the number of students attending adult education courses at any one time in Hong Kong is 150,000 and the majority of the students are aged 16-35 years. The bulk of the student population is in the lower/middle income group with occupations ranging from skilled workers, clerical/secretarial and technical to junior professional and managerial.

Some problems faced

Government tardiness. The government's contribution to adult education in Hong Kong is realized mostly in the courses offered by the Adult Education Section of the Education Department. Although this section is due to expand in the next few years, its work still amounts to a small fraction of adult education work in general.

Government has been slow in providing subsidies for agencies involved in adult education thus making the development and expansion of adult education much more arduous than it should be.

Weak financial support. Financially, adult educational work in Hong Kong suffers from lack of funds as the Government rigidly adheres to the policy of self-support. This invariably penalizes those who cannot afford to pay the fees. For example, the tuition fees in Hong Kong for an average extramural course are believed to be the highest among all Commonwealth countries. Unless the Government is willing to budget for adult education work there is little hope for improvement and adult education is likely to remain a marginal activity in the overall education development scheme for the next decade.

A lack of trained personnel and professionals. According to an informal survey, there are about 12 'formally trained' adult educators in Hong Kong (Certificate 1, Diploma 9, Master's degree 1, Doctorate 1). If adult education is to be recognized as a true profession, there is a strong case for the establishment of some formal training programme both at pre- and in-service levels.

Adult education work is not co-ordinated. Overall planning, monitoring, research and evaluation has been sadly neglected.

The role of the Association of Continuing Education

The formation of the Hong Kong Association for Continuing Education was first initiated by a group of adult education practitioners coming from more than ten leading institutions in Hong Kong in 1972. It was officially established in 1975 and is committed to the advancement of adult education in Hong Kong. The Association has passed its first years of infancy and is now at the stage of consolidation.

The following are its key objectives:

1. Promote and co-ordinate continuing education in Hong Kong;
2. Develop better public understanding of educational needs;
3. Encourage members to carry out regular evaluation of their programmes;
4. Encourage, co-ordinate and/or carry out research projects and studies;
5. Recommend particular continuing education projects or policy for government and public support;
6. Maintain close relations with similar organizations overseas.

Green Paper 1977

In November 1977 in a Government Green Paper on Senior Secondary and Tertiary Education there was a clause which read:

> 11.10 *The private sector will continue to remain important in the provision of adult education. The adult education provided by voluntary organisations is not subvented by Government at the present time, but the Government will consider the need to assist voluntary organisations with selected activities which are not covered by the Education Department's own services.*

It drew some strong reactions from voluntary agencies for being too vague. The Hong Kong Association for Continuing Education quickly sent in suggestions and also helped other groups to formulate their ideas.

White Paper—1978—a policy for the next decade

The resulting White paper on Senior Secondary and Tertiary Education made the following provisions:

A scheme of subvention will be introduced for adult education. Suitable courses for subvention might include:

a) courses designed to improve basic literacy in Chinese;

b) general education for particular groups, such as factory workers and fisherfolk (including re-orientation to land-based living);

c) re-orientation and Cantonese-language courses for newcomers to Hong Kong from other parts of Asia;

d) social and moral education;
e) activities in geographical areas not covered by the Education Department's services.

In 1979 the Hong Kong Association for Continuing Education was informally approached by senior government officials of the Adult Education Section of the Education Department concerning a proposed scheme of subvention related to the policy set up in the White Paper. Following this exchange the Education Department introduced the following set of guidelines for voluntary organizations wanting their non-profit-making adult education programmes to be subvented by Government:

a) Consideration would be limited to proposals for activities which were not already provided by the Education Department or for activities which, though already provided, did not meet the current demand for places from eligible applicants.

b) Proposed activities must be of a 'retrieval' nature, i.e. designed specifically to meet the needs of those without the advantage of a strong formal education, and the project concerned must meet demonstrable public demand from low-income groups, be of benefit to the community at large, and be provided on a strictly non-profit basis.

c) Subvention would be no more than a contribution towards the cost of staff directly engaged in the proposed activities and essential equipment and no project would be subvented unless students paid fees towards part of the cost of the course. (Students from families assisted by the public assistance scheme could apply to the Social Welfare Department for these fees to be taken account of in the Department's assessment of their needs).

d) Subvention would be considered on a project basis and not on a recurrent annual basis. A project was defined as an activity or a series of activities in the field of adult/continuing education, with specific objectives that could be achieved in one year.

e) Renewal of subvention arrangements would be considered on an annual basis and be subject to satisfactory completion of the current agreed project, relative priority of other proposed projects and the continued availability of funds.

f) In the first year of any subvention scheme each participating voluntary organization would be permitted to undertake one project only.

The Association was invited to advise the Education Department on the following:

a) the number of voluntary organizations offering non-profit making adult/continuing education programmes who were likely to be interested in obtaining government subvention;

b) the total amount of subventions needed for the year 1980–81.

A survey designed to provide this information was quickly conducted by the Hong Kong Association for Continuing Education and questionnaires were distributed as follows: 17 major men's religious communities; 21 major women's religious communities; 32 Catholic Diocesan Secondary Schools; 17 members of the Catholic Board of Education; 87 major Catholic parishes/churches; 24 Catholic Diocesan Commissions; 26 members of the Ecumenical Commission; 27 Catholic Evening Secondary Schools; 127 major Christian (Protestant) churches/organizations; 124 member-agencies of the Hong Kong Council of Social Services; 91 members of the Hong Kong Association for Continuing Education; 65 Kai Fong Welfare Associations; 35 interested persons and parties; 2 Trade Unions.

Thirty-eight questionnaires out of 695 were returned representing 5.47 per cent of those surveyed. Among these 38 voluntary organizations, 15 were interested in applying for the government subvention for the year 1980–81 amounting to HK $1,640,450.00.* Both the return rate (5.47 per cent) and the declared interest in applying for the subvention (2.16 per cent) were low. Possible reasons for this were lack of awareness of the subvention scheme for adult education, or reluctance to deviate from ongoing subvented work. However, the organizations that applied for subvention submitted a wide range of interesting adult education activities. In the end government approved a total of HK $650,000 to 18 organizations. The scheme was effective as from September 1980.

Another positive step in the right direction was made in 1979 when a Committee on Diversification (of Hong Kong Industry) was formed to study and make proposals on continuing education needs. In their report, among other things they proposed:

1. that part-time degree courses be introduced;
2. that part-time day release courses be expanded;
3. that a sandwich course system under which students would spend a period or periods working in industry or commerce as an integral part of the degree or diploma course be introduced;
4. that the government should embark on an in-depth study of adult

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* Approximately Hong Kong $5.75 = One US dollar.

education aimed, first, at a clearer definition of the purposes of adult education and second, at its better co-ordination;

5. that the in-depth study of adult education should include consideration of a Hong Kong open education centre, that is, one with flexible entry qualifications but providing education for mature students requiring a high degree of self-learning.

As a result of these proposals, in November 1980 the government formed a Committee on Post Secondary and Technical Education to make recommendations on five major areas, including part-time adult education for upgrading manpower.

Although these schemes are less than a drop of water in the ocean of needs, the Hong Kong Association for Continuing Education still views them as a sign of greater things to come and their efforts have certainly made an indelible impression on many of those concerned with development. ☐

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ADULT EDUCATION AND RURAL DEVELOPMENT

by Md. Ferdouse Khan

The meaning of adult education

Adult education is a very broad term; it is based on the concept of education as a continuous life-long process, a process which is "not necessarily confined to the younger years of man's life or to any specific institution especially designed for learning. Learning begins as soon as the infant becomes aware of his environment and reacts towards it; it does not end until man loses consciousness forever."[1] The definition of 'adult education' as given by Bradford as early as 1949 still holds good:[2]

> "Adult education is a voluntary, serious and frequently organized effort of adult individuals and groups to find through educational means, information, attitudes, understandings and skills helpful in diagnosing and solving their vocational, avocational, personal, family and civic problems."

It is imperative that the functional roles of adult education are unequivocally emphasized. The first International Conference on Adult Education held in Denmark in 1949 (known as the Elsinore Conference) highlighted such roles by stating "Adult education has the task of satisfying the needs and aspirations of adults in all their diversity." Adult education involves various kinds of organized activities which the adults willingly undertake with a view to bringing about changes in their knowledge, skills and attitudes, so that they are able to improve their own conditions. The contents of adult education may broadly be classified as follows:

1. Remedial learning, such as literacy and basic education, the opportunities for which the adults missed in their childhood;
2. Vocational and technical education relevant to the environment;
3. Health and civic education; and
4. General liberal education for the aspirants.

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[1] Louis Lowy. *Adult education and group work.* New York, Whiteside INC and William Morrow & Company, 1955. p. 206.

[2] Leland P. Bradford. *Adult education.* New York, Russell Sage Foundation, 1949, (Social Work Year Book). p. 27.

The actual content of adult education varies from country to country and even from region to region within the same country because it must be relevant to the realities of the situation. It must always be borne in mind that unless education programmes for adults are built upon felt needs and directed towards solving problems, few worthwhile results can be achieved. Here the maxim should be: "Find out what the adults want and what they really need." It is just possible that in very backward areas, people are not quite aware of their own conditions and of their future needs because of ignorance, lethargy and sheer struggle for survival. In such cases steps should first be taken to create in the minds of the adults an awareness of the realities of the situation and an urge for the betterment of their plight.

From the above analysis of the meaning and scope of adult education, it is evident that as adults constitute the active members of the society, appropriate adult education is a potent instrument for social change and a key to progress, especially in the backward rural areas. The existing system of formal education also covers adult education such as in universities and colleges but it produces a limited number of specialists at quite a high cost. For the overall development of the country with emphasis on rural areas, adult education should be mostly of the non-formal type. Such non-formal education has to be relevant, flexible, problem-oriented and need-satisfying. "The potential of non-formal education in this regard," says the Report of the Committee on Non-Formal Education, 1975 (appointed by the Planning Commission, Government of Bangladesh), "rests on its characteristic function of responding to the immediate skill-needs of the diverse clientele groups, the bulk of whom comprises those excluded from the formal school system, the rural and the urban poor, the illiterate, the unemployed and the under-employed."

Trends in rural development in the developing countries

The present trends in rural development activities in the less developed countries are the outcome of overall development programmes during the past two or three decades. In the developing countries, particularly in Asia and the Pacific, plans for development have been implemented since the 1950s. Development, as was conceived and practised in these countries in the 1950s and 1960s, had its origin in the Western concept of development and was defined in economic terms as aiming primarily at progress towards economic 'take-off'. These two decades were a period of worldwide optimism and people thought that solutions to poverty, ignorance and disease lay within their grasp.

Educational, technological and industrial activities were closely integrated with this dream and greater emphasis was naturally laid on production and high-level manpower. Unfortunately, efforts were mostly urban-oriented; these succeeded, to some extent, in achieving overall economic growth measured in terms of increasing GDP and per capita income and in terms of establishment of more industries and factories in the towns, but their impact in the rural areas was in some respects rather disastrous. These impacts are enumerated briefly below.

The educational crisis. There was rapid educational expansion at all levels: enrolment increased at unprecedented rates; educational budgets increased even faster so that by 1975 many developing countries were spending 30 per cent or more of their Government resources on education. But as there was little change in curriculum, methods or structure, the system of education transmitted, in increasing measure, attitude, knowledge, skills and values inconsistent with the realities of the rural societies. The impact on economic development was slow; educated unemployment grew rapidly and student unrest became more and more pronounced.

Under the present system, students are told if they study hard and succeed in their 'examinations' they will have a chance of getting highly paid jobs and the material comforts they desire. Thus, the system is of elitist orientation and unfortunately expectations and realities stand wide apart, leading to disillusionment. Furthermore, as the elite and the near-elite groups alone are reaping the full benefits of the present educational opportunities, the poor-rich stratification is being perpetuated or even aggravated. The existing education system has so far failed to break the barrier and achieve significant social and economic mobility for the vast majority of the poor people, especially in the rural areas.

The migration problem. Each year people are migrating in large numbers from rural areas to towns. Four main causes for such migration are discernible: (a) youths with some education have acquired higher expectations which, in most cases, cannot be fulfilled in rural areas; (b) urban areas offer better services, greater opportunities, more recreational facilities and greater material and social benefits; (c) industrial development in the town areas has produced employment opportunities for a large number of workers and the poor unemployed persons, mostly on the verge of starvation, throng the towns in search of a living; (d) rapid population growth in rural areas.

The rural-urban migration is assuming increasingly formidable proportions. In Bangladesh, which is not yet industrially developed, about three million rural people migrate to the towns every year. This is affecting the rural life in two ways. First, villages are being gradually denuded of skilled workers, who are just the type of people needed for the improvement of rural communities. Thus the very purpose of economic prosperity through industrialization tends to defeat the objectives of social justice and equality of opportunity for rural communities. Also family-bonds are breaking down and parents are losing the sense of security that their children used to bring.

The widening rural–urban gap. Development programmes in the past were undertaken with the hope of achieving economic prosperity and reduction of poverty and ignorance. The implementation of these programmes belied such expectations in respect of rural areas and the reasons for this are not hard to find. First, because of higher concentration of educated, politically-conscious and articulate people in urban areas, the development of facilities there—schools, roads, electricity, transport, hospitals and clinics—necessarily receives high priority at the expense of the rural areas. Almost all the good educational institutions are located in towns and children of fairly well-to-do families derive full benefits out of them, while rural children who come mostly from poor, uneducated families are deprived of such opportunities and thus lag behind.

Second, all the past development plans attached very high priority to industrial development in urban areas at the expense of rural development, thus creating various avenues for urban employment, which lure the rural folk to towns in larger numbers. This ultimately brings about increasing unemployment in the urban areas, and to tackle the situation, further resource allocation is made for the urban areas, again at the expense of the rural areas. In Bangladesh more than 60 per cent of the total plan-allocation has so far been spent in towns inhabited by less than 10 per cent of the entire population. And whatever development funds are utilized in the rural areas, the well-to-do and the land-owners there grab the maximum benefit out of them. The poverty-stricken rural people do not find any improvement in their lot. Thus on the one hand, town areas thrive much faster than the rural areas and on the other, within the rural area itself, the rich are getting richer and the poor poorer—rapidly increasing the rural-urban gap in all spheres of development.

The 1980 World Development Report, issued by the World Bank, has expressed deep concern regarding outlook for growth—particularly for low-income countries—and states, "Developing countries start the decade facing two major challenges. First, they must strive to continue their social progress in a climate that is less helpful than it was a decade ago, or even a year ago. Second, they must tackle the plight of 800 million people living in poverty who have benefited too little from past progress."

The report further stressed the need for rapid growth, for without it "hundreds of millions of very poor people will live and die with little or no improvement in their lot." Fortunately, all the developing countries today are aware of the problems discussed above and are anxious to cope with them. It has now been accepted in all quarters that development does not mean only economic growth and that its primary aim is the improvement of the quality of life in general.

In Bangladesh, the Government launched a national programme of rural development in 1970–71, called the Integrated Rural Development Programme (IRDP) with a view to replicating the 'Comilla model' through the country. The Bangladesh Academy for Rural Development had developed a model for rural development designed to increase agricultural production; create employment opportunities; increase per-capita income and provide a more equitable distribution of incremental benefits. This was tested in 1968 in the Comilla District by organizing co-operatives for farmers, establishing *Thana*[3] Training and Development Centres, implementing drainage and irrigation projects and designing a rural works programme. This became known as the 'Comilla model'. There are now 250 *thanas* operating under this programme. In addition, during 1976–78, four intensive area-development projects were undertaken under IRDP:

1. Seven *thanas* of Bogra and Mymensingh Districts with assistance from the International Development Association;
2. Four *thanas* of Serajganj in the Pabna District with assistance from the Asian Development Bank;
3. Three *thanas* of Noakhali District with assistance from the Danish International Development Agency (DANIDA); and
4. Four *thanas* of Kushtia District with assistance from the Government of the Netherlands.

So far IRDP has concentrated its activities mainly in the field of agricultural development and claims commendable success. The main difficulties experienced by it relate to: (a) lack of adequate co-operation from other nation-building departments at the village level; and (b) the dual system of co-operatives—one under IRDP and the other directly under the Government. Bangladesh in its Second Five-Year Plan (1980–85) proposes to eliminate these problems.

Demand for new skills and knowledge

In Bangladesh, the demand for new skills and knowledge has been the outcome of the implementation of development plans during the two decades. Specific mention may be made of the Second and Third

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[3] *Thana* is an administrative unit of Bangladesh with an average population of 170,000. There are 473 *thanas* in the country.

Five-Year Plans during the Pakistan regime[4] (1965–1970) and the First Five-Year Plan of Bangladesh (1973–1978) followed by a brief Two-Year Plan (1978–1980). During this period there was appreciable industrial expansion mostly in urban areas; existing sugar and textile mills were expanded, new mills and factories such as jute mills, paper mills, textile mills, steel mills, oil refineries, sugar mills, fertilizer factories, machine tools factory, match factories, cement factory, glassware and aluminium factories, and pharmaceutical factories were set up and the Chittagong hydro-electric project came into being. All these created a great demand for middle-level technicians and semi-skilled workers. Seventeen polytechnic institutes, 16 commercial institutes, three monotechnic institutes (for ceramics, leather technology and graphic arts), 53 vocational training institutes, five technical training centres and several driving schools were established. The present annual output of diploma-level technicians and certificate-level skilled workers is 3,500 and 6,600 respectively and about 70 per cent of them are youths from rural areas.

Technical training has recently received great impetus because of the exodus of skilled workers to the Middle East where wages are 10 to 15 times higher and skilled workers, including drivers, are in very high demand. Currently they are leaving the country in such large numbers as to create an acute shortage of skilled manpower. About 22,000 workers are leaving the country each year and their annual foreign remittances amount to £33.6 million plus US $72.9 million (equivalent of Taka 2,800 million per annum).[5] This has gone to improve appreciably the financial condition of about 15,000 families in the rural areas which are distributed throughout the country in clusters.

In the field of agriculture, through dissemination of knowledge, it has been possible to popularize to an appreciable extent, the use of high yield variety seeds and the appropriate use of fertilizers and improved irrigation facilities—all of which have improved yield. Progress in this regard has not been as rapid as desired mainly because of the very high percentage of illiteracy amongst the cultivators. About 37,000 low-lift pumps have been installed in addition to 10,000 shallow tube-wells and 11,000 deep tube-wells.[6] This has created a demand for the skills needed to repair these pumps and wells.

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[4] Bangladesh came into being as an Independent State in 1971 and prior to that it was a part of Pakistan and was known as East Pakistan.

[5] Approximately Bangladeshi Taka 15 = £0.486 or One US dollar.

[6] 1978 figures: Source; Bangladesh Agricultural Development Corporation.

Note: Statistics of Bangladesh used in this article are mostly taken from the *Statistical pocket-book of Bangladesh, 1979*, published by the Bangladesh Bureau of Statistics.

Electricity has been recognized as a powerful tool for economic and social development. In Bangladesh, rural electrification is also a constitutional obligation of the Government. So far 2,018 villages have been supplied with electricity. The Second Plan of Bangladesh proposes to bring electricity into an additional 25,000 villages, covering about 40 per cent of the country by 1985.[7] Implementation of this programme is bound to encourage electricity-run cottage-industries and the inexpensive operation of irrigation pumps and household lighting. Hence the demand for various types of electrical-skills will grow enormously in the rural areas.

Regarding agro-industry, all ten new sugar mills are located in rural areas. Amongst other rural industries which received some fillip and are comparatively better off are those involved in weaving, the preparation of molasses, bamboo and cane-work, pottery and fishing. Improved communication facilities by road and river have increased mobility of both people and merchandise. Quite a large number of rickshaws (tricycled vehicles) and bicycles are now plying on the roads and cycle-repairing has become one of the growing trades in villages.

Although family planning techniques and data are being propagated vigorously by field officers,through various literature, and through all the mass-media, the efforts do not appear to be successful; here also, illiteracy stands in the way.

So far, land-reform measures have been insignificant and have no appreciable impact on rural life. The developing countries realize that their existing distribution of land-ownership and tenancy is a great handicap to agricultural development; they are now seriously trying to formulate appropriate land-reform policies. During the post Second World War period, China demonstrated spectacular success in land reforms. India's recent achievement in some of her States is reported to be encouraging.

Problems of out-of-school youth

The youth constitutes nearly 25 per cent of the total population in the developing countries of Asia and the vast majority of them—91.2 per cent in the case of Bangladesh—live in rural areas. The population of this age-group is estimated at 21.8 million of whom only 0.85 million are in schools and the rest (20.95 million) are out-of-school youths. Of the latter, 19.1 million (9.8 million males and 9.3 million females) belong to rural areas. About 90 per cent of the rural female youth are married and engaged in household affairs. Ten per cent of them are literate and about 30 per cent read up to Class 5 and are primary school graduates.

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[7] Bangladesh Planning Commission. *The Second Five-Year Plan 1980–85*, Dacca, 1980. p. VII-16, XIV-7, 13.

Of the male youths, numbering 3.8 million, about 30 per cent are literate and most of the educated among them and a considerable proportion of the rest who are at least high school graduates, migrate to the towns. The literate seek white-collar jobs as clerks and assistants in offices, shops and firms (average pay Tk. 700-800 per month) and as junior officers under governmental and non-governmental organizations (pay about Tk. 1,000 per month). The balance seek employment as factory workers (pay Tk. 500-600), as peons in offices (Tk. 400-500) and as rickshaw pullers (average income Tk. 25 per day). The job market even for the educated is limited—48 per cent of the educated manpower of Bangladesh being unemployed or inappropriately placed.

A considerable number of illiterate, destitute youths also crowd the towns and take up jobs as day-labourers (earning Tk. 15-20 per day), pushcart pullers (Tk. 20-25 per day) and domestic servants (Tk. 40-100 per month plus food); some take to begging (average income Tk. 5 per day). A significant number of girls, goaded by extreme poverty, are also allured to the town-areas; they work mostly as maids for well-to-do families and as beggars. These migrants suffer great mental stress particularly during the initial period; they face years of problems of adjustment with the new environment plus the problem of adopting new patterns of behaviour. They also come under competing financial pressures. The migration to the towns is roughly estimated at 300,000 a year and the number is rapidly increasing.

About 25 per cent of the rural youth, including an appreciable number of educated ones, are unemployed or under-employed and feel frustrated. If they are to be made employable and useful members of the society, an appropriate skill-development programme in the rural areas needs to be undertaken on a large scale. Such a venture entails formidable problems such as the problem of resources, the problem of trainers and the problem of incentives. Skill training or skill development programmes have to be prepared on the basis of a thorough survey of skills needed immediately or within the foreseeable future; and employment possibilities after acquiring these skills. Otherwise the skill training or development programme will only add another serious dimension to the existing unemployment problem, by wasting so many of the already meagre resources.

When it comes to planning skill training programmes, inter-ministerial and inter-departmental co-operation and co-ordination are not only essential at central level but also at grassroots level. If adult educators, or those responsible for adult education in the Ministry of Education try to implement the skill development programmes, these programmes must be co-ordinated with other sectors in charge of production and other developmental action, because needs or required skills as foreseen by educators may not be what are actually needed. The skill training alone would not automatically create job opportunities. Adult education for rural development has the following immediate tasks:

1. To impart functional literacy to the illiterates;
2. To organize, for the unemployed, appropriate vocational training; and
3. To develop in youth a progressive attitude and eagerness to learn and become useful.

Problem of women

Females, constituting 48.4 per cent of the total population of Bangladesh, (85.6 million, 1979) are the most disadvantaged group in the society. Their number above the age of 9 is estimated at 27.6 million of whom 25.4 million live in the villages with a literacy rate of 10 per cent. Out of 7.8 million primary school-leavers and four million secondary school-leavers, only 2.7 million and 700,000 respectively are women; in higher education the gap is much wider. The problems affecting women's economic and social status are both vast and complex. Traditionally they have remained outside the main stream of development activities and have thus become imprisoned by a network of limitations. Extreme poverty and lack of education, training and job-opportunity have compelled them to depend solely on others. Participation of women in income-generating activities is also extremely meagre. Out of a total labour-force of 28.43 million, only 2.58 million (9 per cent) are women, (2.39 million in rural areas and 190,000 in urban areas).

It has been mentioned earlier that 90 per cent of women in rural areas get married and become solely engaged in household work. In most cases they are too over-burdened to have any respite whatsoever. They are required to look after children, prepare food for the family, grind spices, collect fuel and draw water from nearby ponds and wells. Women have a further workload during harvesting seasons in threshing, husking, winnowing, storing, parboiling and drying the grains. Even during slack seasons or monsoons, they are busily occupied in making fishing nets, cane mats, quilts and various types of jute and bamboo handicrafts. In a rural society women's silent, ungrudging work inside the house is, therefore, of great importance and should not be considered unproductive and non-developmental. These women, whose number is about 20 million, are not officially considered an active labour-force in the country, thus their hard labour goes unrecognized. Methods should be evolved to quantify the economic and social values of their activities and measures taken to appreciate and emphasize their roles.

Another burden shouldered by women is that of bearing children. *The situation of women in Bangladesh*[8] states:

> "The median age for marriage for girls in Bangladesh is 13 years. Married at such a tender age, girls are exposed to multiple pregnancies. With the persistence of traditional values, religious prescriptions and absence of social security, population control has not gained much ground. On an average, a Bangladeshi rural woman has 11 to 12 pregnancies for five to six surviving children. The decision to have children mainly lies with the husband, yet women have to undergo the burden of bearing, feeding and rearing children even under health hazards."

Women of destitute families are forced to seek employment elsewhere. "These are women, who migrate from the village to the urban centres for the purpose of earning a livelihood. The majority of women in this group are illiterate, unskilled and untrained in any trade. Being of a low-class, status they get employed as domestic workers doing part-time jobs in houses of middle-class families or as caretakers of young children. These women do not enjoy any job security and live at a subsistence level of existence. Those women who fail to find such jobs turn to begging and prostitution as an easy and only alternative mode of earning a livelihood."[9]

The problems posed for adult education as to how to help improve the situation of these deprived women is a serious challenge. First, one must realize that adult educators, or even educationists in general cannot offer a solution by themselves. Second, a programme of adult education, often thought suitable for women (such as home economics) may not reach these deprived women, and even if they are available, the content of these programmes may not be of relevance to them. Adult education which aims at improving the status and lives of these women will have to address itself to the very basic socio-economic factors which inhibit them from liberating themselves from the existing constraints. Piecemeal programmes or spasmodic actions are not creating any lasting impacts. Adult education for these women must be conceived as an integral component of the entire societal action for the improvement of women and must be carefully prepared and implemented in co-ordination with, and with the support of, any legislative action, national policy-making process, socio-economic development action, cultural programmes, national educational programme and research and studies.

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[8] Women for Women Research and Study Group. *The situation of women in Bangladesh.* Dacca, 1979. p. 149.

[9] *Ibid.* p. 185.

Problems of other special groups

Besides out-of-school youths and women, two other disadvantaged groups deserve special mention; they are (a) the poor, landless people and (b) the tribal people.

The landless. Thirty-three per cent of the rural population in Bangladesh has been estimated as landless; of this group 22 per cent own homesteads but no arable land and the remaining 11 per cent do not own any land or homesteads and hence may be termed as landless destitutes. Both these groups, especially the latter depend mainly on the sale of their labour; a considerable number live far below the poverty level and many take to begging. The percentage of literacy is lowest—less than 10 per cent—amongst them. It is of utmost importance to help this unfortunate group and teach them functional literacy and some useful skills. The Second Five-Year Plan 1980–1985 of Bangladesh included the landless as one of its target groups.

The tribal people. The tribal population of Bangladesh is estimated at about 600,000, mostly concentrated in the Chittagong Hill Tracts (5,089 square miles). They are ethnically and culturally different from the plain-land people and are educationally extremely backward. The percentage of literacy in 1961 was less than 10 per cent. They are isolated from the rest of the population in the sense that social contacts with others are few and far between and most of them still lead their own primitive lives, unaware of the progress of the outside world. Their occupations are mainly agriculture, weaving and handicrafts. These vocations are in need of modernization, especially their *jhum* or shifting cultivation, which leads to soil-erosion and deforestation.[10] Their per capita income is only Tk. 1,459, which is appreciably below the national level. With a view to offering them extensive educational facilities more than 800 primary schools, 30 secondary schools, two intermediate colleges and one government degree college were established in this region during the 1960s. Places have also been reserved for tribal students in the universities, engineering colleges, medical colleges and technical institutions. The 1974 census shows a literacy rate of 16.4 per cent, a rise of more than 6 per cent within a span of 13 years. They should continue to receive special attention and should be increasingly involved in the mainstream of national activities.

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10. For *Jhuming*, hill-slopes are first cleared through burning. Seeds of different crops are mixed and planted in small holes at fairly even intervals. After harvesting for a couple of years the area is abandoned and a new area taken up for cultivation.

Existing adult education programmes

Three types of adult education programme exist in Bangladesh: (a) the adult literacy programme; (b) skills development; and (c) the further education programme.

Adult literacy. Many literacy campaigns were undertaken during the last 50 years, but experience shows that sporadic, unco-ordinated efforts did not yield any visible improvement whatsoever. The percentage of literacy in Bangladesh was 21 per cent in 1951, 21.5 per cent in 1961 and 22.2 per cent in 1974. This means that in 23 years the literacy percentage increased by only 1.2 per cent whereas the actual number of illiterates above 5 years of age increased from 24.6 million to about 46.2 million.

> "The first serious national venture to fight illiteracy was launched during the mid-50s under the Village Agricultural and Industrial Development (V-AID) programme. The programme was wound up before it could create an appreciable impact and the literacy work of the V-AID was inherited in the early 60s by the Comilla Academy for Rural Development, now called Bangladesh Academy for Rural Development (BARD). BARD designed. . . an experimental project for selected areas; they used the village co-operatives as a base for promoting adult education. The valuable experience gained by them was not utilized for large-scale implementation. In 1963 the Government created an Adult Education Section in the Education Directorate and through it launched a modest pilot project in Adult Education. This pilot project now covers selected areas in eight *thanas* only. . . Here again for lack of adequate Government support the experimental project could not expand appreciably."[11]

Currently a number of voluntary organizations are engaged in this field. Of these, *Shawnirvar* (self-reliant) villages, Bangladesh Rural Advancement Committee (BRAC), Bangladesh Association for Community Education (BACE), *Jatiya Mahila Sangstha* (National Women's Organization), *Jatiya Tarun Sangha* (National Youth Organization) and Bangladesh *Sakkharata Samity* (Literacy Society) deserve special mention. But so far their achievements do not appear to be of much consequence. The failures of Bangladesh in all these past ventures show that:

1. Short-term piecemeal projects cannot achieve any tangible, enduring results. Long-term massive Government-sponsored programmes and sustained efforts are needed;

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[11] Md. Ferdouse Khan. *Literacy and Bangladesh.* Dacca, Bangladesh Association for Community Education, 1979. p.18-19.

2. A superficial acquirement of reading and writing skills will be lost quickly and the neo-literates relapse into illiteracy unless they keep on using the skills learnt;
3. All literacy workers should be acquainted with the appropriate techniques of teaching; and
4. Simultaneously with effective campaigns, suitable organizational machinery should be set up.

The President of Bangladesh on 30 April 1977 declared a 19-point programme of which Item 9 is: "The country must be freed from the curse of illiteracy." This declaration was followed by establishing a high-powered Mass Education Council with the Vice-President of the country as its Chairman. Subsequently in December 1979, the President identified the eradication of illiteracy as "the second phase of revolution." At his insistence a crash programme was launched throughout the country starting on 21 February 1980. The Second Five-Year Plan of Bangladesh has accepted that "illiteracy is a serious barrier to socio-economic development" and made provision therein to make all illiterates within the age-group 10-45 years (numbering about 40 million) literate during 1980-85. It is also proposed to: (a) set up a Directorate of Mass Education at the national-level with overall responsibility; (b) involve the entire literate section of the country in the programme and (c) form 'Literacy squads' in villages.

Despite the unprecedented enthusiasm created throughout the country the crash programme may not be successful. This is because:

1. The programme has been launched in a hurry without adequate preparatory arrangements. Ten million copies of specially written primers have been printed and widely distributed but little attention has been paid to provision of methodological guidance and training to the literacy teachers and workers;
2. Effective organizational arrangements to cope with the task have not been fully evolved;
3. Steps have not been taken to produce and supply suitable follow-up literature for the neo-literates; without such literature the literacy skills already acquired will quickly be lost; and
4. The literate population of the country has not been properly mobilized, nor the illiterate adults adequately motivated.

Skills development. Such activities in Bangladesh are limited and they have so far remained in the town areas where most of the technical and vocational institutions are located. A few progressive villages have recently started workshops for training youths in trades like carpentry, masonry, electrical wiring, and cycle-repairs. It has been found, however, that after training most of these young people hurry to the towns in search of jobs. The rural environment seems incapable of retaining them.

In skills development Bangladesh has to face a gigantic task. About 700,000 of its educated population are unemployed and about 20 million males of the age-group 15–45 are unskilled—3.13 million of whom are without any work. In addition, 19 million women in rural areas (who are not included in the official workforce) are engaged in household chores; the vast majority are unskilled and their full potential is yet to be released and utilized.

Because skill formation at the craftsmen level and its optimum utilization represents one of the basic constituents of economic growth, and with a view to meeting the chronic shortage of such manpower, substantial provision for technical training has been made in the Second Five-Year Plan of Bangladesh under four sectors:[12]

1. Under the Manpower and Labour sector, for producing engineering craftsmen like machinists, turners, farm mechanics, automechanics, power-pump mechanics, electricians and blacksmiths;
2. Under the Youth Development sector, for training courses in both traditional and non-traditional vocational crafts based on local raw materials and available marketing facilities;
3. Under the Women's Affairs sector, for making special arrangements for skill development training and production centres for women; and
4. Under the Education sector, for setting up vocational training institutions in selected *thana* headquarters and for vocationalizing secondary education through the establishment of Community High Schools to offer a community-based assortment of vocational courses, one in each of the 4,353 unions and one in each of the 473 *thanas.*

Further education. In rural Bangladesh the opportunity for further education for out-of-school youths and adults does not exist. A literate person keen on improving his educational qualifications will not find any institution or organization in the village offering him the desired educational facilities. He has to remain content with whatever he learnt in his younger days in a local primary and secondary school; the barriers surrounding him seem insurmountable.

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[12] Bangladesh. Planning Commission. *The Second Five-Year Plan, 1980–85.* Dacca, 1980. Chapters II, XVI, and XVIII.

Suggestions for improvement

Adult literacy

1. The campaign already launched is yet to gather adequate momentum. Campaigning should go on continuously in a planned manner without any slackening of efforts, wider participation should be secured and all the mass media should be fully utilized.

2. Effective training programmes for literacy personnel should be organized as a matter of priority. Every village should have at least one such trained person who, in turn, can hold training courses locally.

3. Graded follow-up literature dealing with a great variety of subjects of vital interest to the adults should be published continuously and a regular flow to the rural areas should be maintained. Language used, vocabulary chosen, topics included and mode of presentation of the materials should be suitable for the neo-literates. These follow-up books are to serve a two-fold purpose; first, they will prevent the neo-literates from relapsing into illiteracy and second, the adults will gain new knowledge and techniques needed to improve their lives.

4. Steps should be initiated by the Government to evaluate and to co-ordinate the literacy and post-literacy work now being done by various organizations.

5. An appropriate mechanism must be created to provide a continuing professional and administrative support to the mass literacy campaign. An Institute of Adult Education with the following functions may meet this need: (a) to guide and organize training programmes; (b) to carry on continuous research on methodology of teaching and preparation of primers; (c) to produce and encourage the production of follow-up literature; (d) to evaluate continuously all materials published for adult education; and (e) to organize seminars and conferences on adult education.

Skills development. The following suggestions are offered:

1. Training for new skills or trades should be introduced in the rural areas after the authorities are satisfied that:

   a) The skills are relevant, or will be relevant in the near future, to the social environment;

   b) There is a definite need for such skills, and that the local people understand the importance of such skills and are eager to acquire them;

   c) The raw materials on which the skills are based are locally available at reasonable cost;

d) The finished products of the skills have a ready market in the environment. If markets do not exist, adequate marketing facilities are to be created.

2. Such skills and crafts as would encourage self-employment or would find immediate application should receive higher priority. On successful completion of training, the trainees should be provided with tools free of charge if possible or at a nominal cost so as to help them find self-employment.

3. There should be provision for upgrading existing skills. In every village there are professional groups of craftsmen in various trades who are continuing in their own traditional manner using outmoded implements and methods. Most of them are illiterate and have no scope for exposure to better ideas; some have, of course, acquired exceptional dexterity through personal effort and insight. Every trade should be encouraged to form a guild and through it appropriate training programmes should be launched.

4. Artisans should be identified and occasionally meet in groups for interchange of experience and for exposure to new ideas. Annual exhibitions of their handicrafts should be held and prizes awarded to the most outstanding amongst them. This will give them prestige and create a desire for improvement.

5. Members of various trades such as farmers, weavers, potters, carpenters, blacksmiths, tailors, barbers, fishermen, washermen, cobblers, goldsmiths, bamboo and cane workers and masons can easily be identified, but reliable statistics about them are not available. There should be a proper survey in this regard.

6. Skill training is being undertaken by so many different organizations and agencies and effective co-ordination seems necessary. The establishment of some co-ordinating mechanism is therefore desirable.

Further education. Opportunities for further education should be created in the rural areas. Some selected primary schools and secondary schools may hold evening classes for aspirant adults. It will be necessary to redesign the primary curriculum keeping in view their age, aptitude and experience. It should be possible to evolve a suitable condensed two-year primary course for them. There is perhaps scope for some readjustment in the junior secondary course as well. Correspondence courses and systematic 'on-the-air' instruction through radio and television by an organized body of specialists may also be helpful provided there are some organized groups such as listening groups at the receiving end with qualified monitors or teachers, to guide the learners and to follow-up what has been broadcast.

Community participation. Rural development programmes cannot succeed unless community participation is secured and community resources are mobilized. As has been emphasized earlier, imposition from above will not take root and hence will defeat the purpose. To ensure people's participation in the development process a suitable village-level organization has to be evolved. Such an organization will also provide a system for mobilization and efficient use of community resources.

In Bangladesh, a *Shawnirvar* (self-reliant) movement was started in 1975 with a view to fostering local leadership and desire for self-improvement, utilizing local resources for development and solving, as far as possible, problems locally. Initially 630 *Shawnirvar* villages were set up. Encouraged by the success of this venture, the Government has decided to extend the programme throughout the country and to bring under *Shawnirvar Gram Sarkar* (self-reliant village Government) all the 68,000 villages by 31 December 1980.[13]

For the effective preparation and implementation of Adult Education Programmes the involvement of all departments, not only Education, but also Agriculture, Industries, Public Health and Rural Development, is necessary. Non-governmental organizations like trade unions, welfare societies, religious and charitable associations can help in the effort. An effective mechanism to co-ordinate all these activities not only at a national-level but at *thana*-level and village-level is needed.

Conclusion

This article was prepared essentially with data available in Bangladesh in view of the author's personal experiences in adult education in Bangladesh. Generally speaking, however, the problems faced by the developing countries of the region appear to be similar both in nature and magnitude; only their cultural and environmental contexts being different. It is hoped, therefore, that this background paper, although written predominantly with Bangladesh examples and data, will have highlighted common issues to stimulate discussions. It is also hoped that the discussions at the seminar will result in developing a number of suggestions and recommendations, especially for inter-country co-operation, in order to further learn from one anothers' experiences. □

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[13] Bangladesh. *The Shawnirvar Gram Sarkars (Constitution and Administration) Rules, 1980.* Dacca, Bangladesh Gazette, 1980.

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ADULT EDUCATION AND INDUSTRIAL/URBAN DEVELOPMENT

by Jong-Gon Hwang

Introduction

John Dewey's statement in his *Democracy and education*, "Education is life, education is growth, education is social process,"[1] supports the view that the affairs of education are basically related to those aspects of a human being's life which allows him or her to function both as an individual and in association with other individuals. Therefore, the ultimate goals of education must be based on a foundation of equality that will ensure the individual has a sense of well-being and the society a feeling of prosperity and harmony.

For many centuries, education was available to only a few privileged people, causing the harmony and prosperity of society to deteriorate severely. Education used to be limited to the elite or the wealthy minority and confined to schools which functioned as places of struggle for social mobility.

Only recently has universal education been introduced to the general population in developing countries. In most cases education is still limited to the elementary or lower-elementary level and there are still many uneducated or illiterate people who are ignorant in their daily lives, insecure in society and desperately need food and health care. Apparently something is wrong with the priorities of developing countries. The primary target of the developmental policies and strategies among many of these nations continues to be the achievement of economic growth by means of industrialization and maintaining national independence and security by social integration and co-operation of its people.

After becoming independent from long periods of colonial rule, many Asian countries in the course of modernization first set forth national development policies and strategies characterized by the industrialization policies of former Western colonizers. However, countries which put their priority on industrial development soon realized how important education was for achieving development goals. With the belief

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[1] John Dewey. *Democracy and education*. New York. MacMillan Co., 1916.

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that "education is the key which unlocks the door to modernization,"[2] they engaged in various activities concerned with basic adult education, skill training, and civic education.

These activities, which bear a close relationship to the Fundamental and Adult Education Campaign initiated by Unesco and to the two Developmental Decades launched by the United Nations in the 1960s and 1970s, were upgraded and took the form of regional or international linkage and co-operation.

With assistance and consultation on the part of the developed nations and under the auspices of the international organizations and agencies, vast development campaigns and projects have been continuously launched and carried out in the developing countries around the world. One cannot deny that there have been enormous successes in literacy campaigns, agricultural reforms in the rural areas, as well as industrial development in the urban areas in the developing nations.

In spite of the persistent pursuit of these goals, the problems of unequal distribution of wealth and opportunity, and of cultural disparity between individuals, groups, or nations still remain, or are becoming worse.

In the proceedings of an International Symposium sponsored by Unesco, Malcolm Adiseshiah, a former president of the International Council for Adult Education, pointed out:

> *As we look back on two developmental decades of the United Nations, of the 60s and 70s. . . we realize that the kind of development which has taken place has increased our inequalities between the rich minority and the poor majority within countries.*[3]

This dilemma might have been created partly by the unbalanced and unreasonable social structure already existing within the countries, and partly by the unfair world economic order between developed and developing countries. On the part of the developing countries however, the responsibility might also be placed on inadequate planning and execution of national policies and strategies for development largely carried out without regard to their own socio-political, economic, and cultural structures. They tended to blindly trace the tracks of Western industrialization without foreseeing the many acute problems Western nations had already faced in the course of industrialization and urbanization.

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[2] F. Harbison and C.A. Myers. *Education, manpower and economic growth.* New York, McGraw-Hill, 1964. (in the Preface)

[3] Malcolm Adiseshiah. "Adult education faces inequality" *Brief report of International Symposium at the University of Madras, India,* from 28 January to 1 February 1980.

After two decades of effort and striving for development, many Asian countries now are bewildered by the dilemma brought about by their philosophies and strategies for development. Furthermore, these efforts have been hampered and obstructed not only by the problems arising from industrial development but also by problems arising from rapid urbanization.

Though given from the viewpoint of economic growth, Dr. Adiseshiah's critical comment on the ever-widening gap between the industrialized and developing nations underlines the important role adult education has for promoting equality. He contends that adult education should be an instrument for reducing inequalities, raising levels of professional qualifications and improving cultural standards.

Another assumption in this paper is that adult education should play an important role in promoting social integration, i.e., the process of harmonizing and unifying the diverse and conflicting characteristics of individuals and groups in a rapidly changing society.

The rapidity of change and the complex structure and process of modern society experienced in several Asian cities has brought about many seemingly insurmountable problems to the people in metropolitan and industrialized communities. Rapid urbanization has resulted in the development of sub-standard living conditions, social disintegration,political instability and culture lag.

This is exemplified through the creation of slums and the social disorders of drug abuse, prostitution, destitution and high unemployment. There is also a crisis in social values and beliefs as manifested in symptoms of bewilderment and alienation in the personalities and behaviour of people.

Increasing urbanization and connected problems are common in small cities, especially in towns rapidly expanding or emerging from an industrial impact. The problems of transition from a traditional way of life to a modern one are those of social integration within the newly formed community which are no less serious to the people than the problems of their occupational adjustments.

This paper was prepared in the belief that adult/non-formal education, that is, the education of the participants in those processes, could play a major role in eliminating poverty–abolishing discrimination in a sense, promoting social integration and restoring order and solidarity among people on the principles of equality for all. To realize our mandate, adult education should provide the people with the opportunity to develop their dreams and potentialities for their own well-being, help them to adjust to the ever-changing socio-economic and cultural environment and conditions, and promote their skills and professional qualifications.

Implications of urban development with reference to special groups

In some parts of the world, urbanization and industrialization have gone hand-in-hand. Yet, the terms are not interchangeable and there is no necessary correlation between them.[4] A community may be urbanized without industrialization, and a city may grow rapidly not by the exclusive industrial impact but by the many other factors influencing urbanization.

Typical examples of acute urban development are the rapid expansions of metropolitan cities like New Delhi, Manila, Hong Kong, Seoul, Bangkok, and Jakarta. The population in these metropolises or megalopolises keeps growing with no limit in sight. The following statistics show the increase in population in six metropolitan Asian cities between 1968 and 1977: Manila, 1,450,000; Bangkok, 1,172,000; Jakarta, 1,784,000; New Delhi, 1,190,000; Hong Kong, 776,000; and Seoul, 3,720,368.

Because population centralization virtually reached its limits in these metropolitan cities where people streamed into the central areas for many years, sub-urbanization got under way as the people spread to the outskirts of the cities. Sub-urbanization may also often be stimulated by the low cost of land in the suburban area and by the development of transportation systems, but it may also often depend upon the impact of industrial facilities newly established in that area.

In any case, the characteristics of ever-growing cities, especially metropolitan cities, are drastic changes in the patterns of human relations, in status and role of special groups like youth, women, and the aged, and in values and attitudes of the people.

Though many people live together in a metropolitan area they feel neither a sense of belonging to the area, nor a wish to interact with their neighbours and consequently they feel alienated in the community. This means there will not be any consensus or morale among residents, which are the prerequisites for integration and co-operation in the community. This is especially so in apartment districts in the inner parts of the cities.

In suburban areas, however, there is an increasing involvement among neighbours that is unseen in the metropolitan areas. As Scott Greer notes, "moving from urban districts toward familistic neighbourhoods, from the central city's apartment houses to outer wards and finally to the suburban tract developments, we find an increasing proportion of the adult population involved in the small-scale order of the neighbourhood and the larger local community."[5] In this case, adult education can help people to organize themselves and to participate in solving their problems in cooperative ways. The adult classes and programmes offer the most suitable time and place for them to meet and communicate with one another and share their common interests and experiences which eventually enrich their lives.

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[4] Gerald Breese. *Urbanization in newly developing countries*. Englewood Chiffs, N.J., Prentice-Hall Inc., 1966. p. 5-6.

This picture of urbanism and suburbanism, however, is not common or familiar to many Asian cities where a large proportion of the poor people live in vast slums and shanty towns in their suburban areas. Most of the residents in these areas are stricken by unemployment and poverty and in desperate need of food, housing, and health care. Furthermore, the poor people in these areas have a higher birth rate than the moderate income people in the inner cities. Though it is the primary task of adult education to provide them with the opportunities for literacy/basic education and skill training so they can find employment and higher income, the efforts will be fruitless unless drastic changes take place in the social, economic and cultural structure of the country by means of legal provisions and education.

In a rapidly growing urban society, particular concern has to be directed to special groups such as out-of-school youths, women, and old people. The subordinate status of youths and women in the old traditional society is no longer maintained in the relatively rational urban-industrial society. On the one hand youths and women are becoming independent and recognized in the new society while on the other, old people who were respected and privileged in the traditional society are becoming neglected or even unwanted. As a result, old people tend to view with apprehension their loss of status to which they have to get adjusted.

Young people supply the vital energy and are the hope for the future prosperity of the society. Many developed countries have given equal educational opportunities to the young up to 18 years of age and have prepared them for their future with vocational training as well as with the opportunity for higher education. Numerous developing countries in Asia, however, do not have the financial means to give their youth the needed compulsory education; consequently, problems of out-of-school youth are not only individual or family problems but also social and national problems.

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[5] Scott Greer. *The emerging city*. New York, The Free Press. p. 108-109.

According to a 1975 census, the population of the Republic of Korea was 34,681,000 with 20.9 per cent aged between 15 and 24. Of these, 27 per cent were in formal schools, and 45 per cent were in jobs, or in the armed forces. These statistics indicate that about 28 per cent of this age group did not belong to the above categories and were literally unemployed.[6] When these young people find themselves without jobs, without a sense of belonging, and with the realization that there is nothing left for them, they will become disruptive and deviant in personality and behaviour. This problem has to be dealt with not only for the prevention of juvenile delinquency but also for positive development of the ideals and energies of the youth, for individual happiness, and for social welfare.

The fundamental needs of these youths are, of course, vocational training, employment, and adjustment to the job environment. These needs are now well handled by the government or private industry with specialists in various fields of vocational training. Our attention, therefore, will rather be directed to youth programmes for the community schools, youth centres, and other voluntary organizations.

One of the most conspicuous adult/non-formal education programmes provided by the urban community for out-of-school youths consists of supplementary courses offered in evening schools or correspondence schools. Also, there are programmes and activities by youth organizations fostering sports, recreation, and other hobbies or interests. The former, as a supplement to formal education, tend to be similar to formal schooling in content and methods of education. The latter tend to be informal leisure time activities. Therefore, more courses in the form of lectures, discussions, investigations and reports in the areas of liberal/general education, human relations, family relations, and citizenship training should be provided for the self-realization, personal development, and social adjustment of youth.

Another group that needs special care is women. Since World War II, many countries have recognized women's status and rights as equal to those of men along the line of democratic principles with the result that educational opportunities for women have greatly improved. This means that theoretically women have equal status with men in social participation and wage-earning. Another factor that affects the status of women is the application of modern technology to household appliances such as electric ovens, washing machines, and vacuum cleaners, resulting in a simplified way of life and more leisure time for women. A survey of housewives living in a new industrial centre, showed they spend about nine hours in housekeeping, about eight to nine hours sleeping, and enjoy about six to seven hours leisure.[7] Leisure can either be a source of trouble or a condition for happy living. This unexpected leisure can be utilized for their continued growth and productive activities, and this falls in the province of adult education. It may be hobby-oriented for middle-class housewives; hence, their interest may lie in liberal/general education. Urban young women who are interested in courtship and marriage may want to know more about family relations, homemaking, child-care, pregnancy and maternity.

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[6] S.I. Kim. "Adult education in the industrial and urban context in Korea" *Adult education in industrial and urban community*, proceedings of ASPBAE Region 3 Conference, Daegu, Keimyung University (Korea), 1979. p. 161.

It is not a widespread phenomenon in Asia today, however, that women are better educated and have more leisure than before. In most Asian countries the majority of women still bear the dual burden of breadwinner and housewife. Women of the lower classes in an urban/industrial society may be constantly seeking employment in industry, but they suffer from cultural barriers and social inequality, and they rarely have an opportunity to get the skill training they need. These poor women are presently engaged as factory workers, housekeepers, pavement hawkers, street vendors selling fruits and vegetables, and in the worst case, as prostitutes. These are low paid low-status jobs and are performed under very poor working conditions compared to those of men. They have neither labour organizations nor any legal provisions and institutions to protect them and improve their working conditions and increase their income. Furthermore, some women, especially those in a complex metropolitan area, tend to fall prey to the dark aspects of the social structure by becoming victims of violence and exploitation.

Adult education should help them to enhance their employment security and increase their income. In this connection, it is recommended that adult education not only provides them with basic education and skill training, but also helps them organize better living and working conditions. Legitimate provisions and strategies also have to provide for the estranged and discriminated female labour force, potential or active, by breaking the cultural and social barriers and by providing them with equal opportunities for vocational training which would guarantee them better jobs.

Finally, one of the most serious problems in the emerging urban/industrial society is a gerontological one. In a modern society where living conditions, medical care, and welfare facilities are improved, the resulting increase in life expectancy has produced an increase in the elderly population. Retirement may have a serious psychological effect on old people. After spending a lifetime on a job which was nourished with care and effort, leaving it may become a traumatic experience. Retirement may also cause physical deterioration. The retirement system is a serious problem in itself, and it will not be discussed any further here. Only the gerontological problems will be dealt with from the viewpoint of adult education.

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[7] Bok-Nam Yoon. *Women's role and leisure time activities*, Keimyung University, 1976. (Master's Dissertation).

Old people in their declining period may have to contend with adjustment to their deteriorating physical strength and health, increased leisure, death of the spouse and ensuing loneliness, family relations with the younger generation, and adjustment to their age group. In a traditional society, old people may enjoy the respect of the young and live together with their offspring. But in a modern urban/industrial society where the family size is becoming smaller and dehumanization is prevalent, the old people are becoming estranged and forgotten.

They are not, however, necessarily non-productive and useless. Their experience, talent and energy can be utilized for child-care and the education of children as well as for the social and economic development of the country. They can give excellent care to infants and children in day care centres or kindergartens. They can serve as resource persons or volunteers at various social gatherings. They can also be a source of useful labour depending on their ability and resources as well as on the kinds of jobs. In some countries, meeting places or adult schools have been established for urban and rural elderly people so that they can get together to enjoy their leisure, or in some cases, participate in courses for senior citizens.

These programmes for the old should be organized in such a way as to minimize the problems of the generation gap in the family and the community. Adult education should also provide a means by which the old can feel free of the uncertainty of life and feel that their period of retirement is just as meaningful as the time when they were working.

Summary

In a rapidly expanding urban city, there are many acute problems related to the process of urbanization and industrialization that are characterized by drastic changes in the patterns of human behaviour, and in the values and attitudes of the people. These changes are most observable in certain groups such as youth, women, the aged, and the poor.

Adult/non-formal education could contribute in various ways to solving these problems. For example if basic education and skill training programmes for the male and female workers in this special category of society were provided their professional standards would be raised. They could then seek higher-paid jobs which would increase their incomes and help to eliminate poverty. Adult education could help women in another way through programmes pertaining to family relations, homemaking, child-care and so forth, thus, helping them to adjust to their role as homemaker and mother. Programmes for the aged could also be organized to minimize the problems they are experiencing because of the changing attitudes of the young toward them. Other programmes for the aged should be concerned with leisure activities and with utilizing their experiences and talents in community development. These are just some of the ways in which adult/non-formal education could contribute to community solidarity.

Social and vocational adjustment with reference to social integration and occupational adjustment

The following analysis looks at the problems of rapid urban/industrial development found in many communities. The location and labour requirements of the new industrial complex contribute to the development of these problems. Industrial complexes tend to be located near a provincial city because of the accessibility of a labour force, transportation, and other necessary supplies. Since such cities are often unable to meet the labour requirements of the new industry, people from other parts of the country migrate to the area, bringing with them values and attitudes that may conflict with those of the long-established residents. In all cases where population has mobilized for urban development, problems of conflict and non-integration can be found among the different social groups who are forced to live together in the expanding area.

The two distinct groups in the rapidly changing areas are the migrants and the indigenous people. The migrants may be divided into two different groups: one directly related to the industry, and the other which takes care of the public and commercial service functions. The first group may be further sub-divided into a managerial group and a labour group. As these two distinct groups with their diverse social and cultural backgrounds unite into a community, drastic changes may occur in the existing social structure and culture. Harmony is difficult to attain because the indigenous group wishes to preserve its own traditional culture, stable structure, and morale; hence in the eyes of this group, the migrants are viewed as a group of newcomers and strangers that threaten their long-established, cherished traditions.

Moreover, the migrant residents themselves view one another as strangers and are reluctant to be integrated with one another; therefore, the community cannot function as a unified entity. Integration of these two groups must be realized so that together they can enjoy their social life within the community and solve the many problems arising from community expansion. There may be new challenges in housing administration, education, culture, health care, and other service aspects of the community. To make these aspects of the community work together as a functional unit for improving community life is indeed a Herculean task.

Here arises an imperative requirement for social integration if the community is to function as a unified whole and solve the problems with the full participation of the people. Social integration is the psychological force of a society which internally generates morale and develops the abilities of the community. Without this integration, neither the comfortable settlement of the immigrants nor co-operation among the people in the community can be achieved, especially between the indigenous group and the migrants. There are many examples showing that, due to a lack of social integration, newly emerging urban towns are experiencing a severe conflict between the indigenous and the migrant residents. For the residents of a community, sharing the common experiences and conditions within the existing environment and working together in a kindly, comfortable, and co-operative manner is mandatory to make their community a better place in which to live. "Community organization is a basic way in which groups of persons work towards common ends. As used by social workers, it is a method of co-ordinating institutions, agencies, groups, and individual persons of an area to make collective adjustments to social needs and resources, to create and maintain facilities and services, and integrate activities for common welfare."[8]

Therefore, we may conclude that adult education programmes applying the techniques of community organization, should be designed in a way to promote social integration and co-operation in the target community. As shown in the diagrams on the following page, the integration between the indigenous group and the migrant group (Figure 1) and also among the migrants (Figure 2) can be achieved by means of community organization and adult education programmes.

In these cases of social integration, the concept of community education can be applied. Community education is the integrated process of education in which the community people participate in the continuous development of their abilities and potentials for the sake of the development of the community as well as for the well-being of the individuals.

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[8] Henry P. Fairchild [and others]. *Dictionary of sociology.* Totowa, N.J., Littlefield, Adams Co., 1970. p. 52.

Figure 1. Integration between indigenous and migrant groups

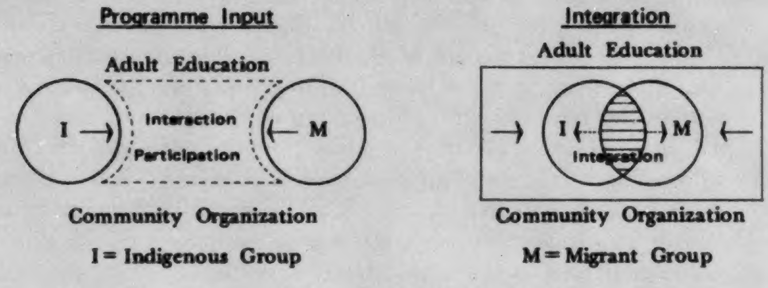
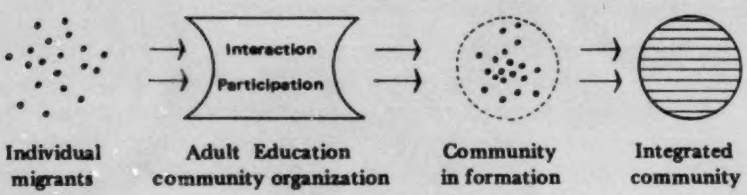

Programme Input
Adult Education
I
Interaction
Participation
M
Community Organization
I = Indigenous Group
Integration
Adult Education
I
M
Integration
Community Organization
M = Migrant Group

Figure 2. Integration in the migrant community


Interaction
Participation
Individual migrants
Adult Education community organization
Community in formation
Integrated community

"Community education is designed to help people achieve the social and economic progress which will enable them to take their place in the modern world."[9] Therefore, the emphasis in community education should be placed on leadership and citizenship training as well as on the participation of the people in the co-operative group action.

Besides the problem of social adjustment of the people in the rapidly changing urban/industrial societies, there is also the equally important problem of vocational adjustment. In pursuit of better jobs, many migrant workers congregate in an area where active industrial development is under way. Even those who have previously held jobs will have to try to readjust themselves to jobs that may require new skills and processes different from their previous ones. Moreover, migrant workers are confronted with situations which make great demands on them morally, psychologically, and socially. Occupational education and skill training must not neglect these needs if they are to prepare the new workers for productive activity and personal growth.

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[9] W. Beatty. "Nature and Purpose of Community Education" *Community Education (58th Year Book)*, National Society for the Study of Education, Chicago, University of Chicago Press, 1959. p. 12.

Occupational education and skill training relevant to the industrial development are important not only to the migrant workers but also to the indigenous people in the area and to the residents of nearby cities. Many of those indigenous people who sold their real estate to the new industry—and those living in the surrounding areas—may want to benefit by having jobs in the new industry. Most of these people have lived in a traditional environment, operating a small farm or business. In other words, they want to change their jobs from a conventional occupation which needs little skill to an industrial occupation which requires a high degree of skill and organized work patterns. Most of these people do not qualify to be employed in the new industry even though many new jobs are available. The problems of these indigenous people should have been predicted in advance and a scheme of vocational guidance and training should have been formulated by the co-operative efforts of the administrational, educational, and industrial planners.

Another group requiring vocational training is the out-of-school youths. Many of these young people leave their homes in rural areas and go to the city or to industrial areas in search of work. In some countries, the government or private industry allocate funds for the pre-service training of these young people. For example, the Vocational and Industrial Training Board of Singapore, and the Labour Office of the Republic of Korea provide in-service training programmes for blue-collar workers and large-scale pre-service training programmes for the young. Some countries also have institutionalized workers' education and vocational training in industry by a vocational training act or industrial training act.

Summary

In a newly-forming community effected by rapid urban and industrial development, there arises the problem of conflict and disintegration among different social groups. The programmes of adult education and community organization can play a major role in ameliorating these problems and thus promoting social integration, which must be achieved to enable the community to solve its problems and function as an entity. Besides the problems of social integration, the importance of occupational adjustment and related educational programmes should also be taken into account not only for migrant-workers but also for the indigenous residents and out-of-school youths. Occupational education programmes must be enhanced by the efforts of the government and industry with concrete legal provisions.

School, workplace and the community

A school will die unless it functions as a centre of community life, helps people to improve their daily lives in harmony with others, and eventually brings the community to a more vital and prosperous stage. Therefore "school education must be projected out of the sheltered classroom and into the living community which is the child's primary scene of present and future life activities." [10] This is a function of the community school where work experience for students is strongly advocated. Through the work-experience programme, "pupils and students are expected to learn the significance of work and labour, and to be motivated to work," and "students can understand the meaning of working, find their own vocational aptitudes and decide their future job through the experience of working." [11]

The work-experience programme is thus the educational flow from school to workplace; from learning in a structured school situation to learning in a real-life situation in the workplace. The educational flow, however, should be inter-transferable between school and workplace; that is students from school to workplace and labourers from workplace to school.

Regarding the working population in the urban/industrial community, there should be a formal linkage or co-operation between the school and the workplace based on institutional or legal arrangements. In the Republic of Korea, the legal basis for establishing special schools or classes for working people was provided by the Amendment to Education Act of 1976 (Articles 103 and 107). There are 31 special high schools established in factories, accommodating 21,838 worker students. These schools have curricula identical to those of regular high schools, and diplomas or certificates are issued upon graduation. There is another educational arrangement for daytime workers, that is special classes in regular schools in nearby towns or cities. The students of these classes come from factories where independent schools cannot be established due to lack of funds or an insufficient number of worker-students.

According to the law, the industries are subsidized by a certain amount for their expenses in proportion to the number of workers they send. In 1979, there were 82 regular schools which organized special classes for 20,135 worker-students from industry. The number of special schools and classes is expected to increase in the future. Though workers enthusiastically attend the classes in order to get an advanced diploma, it is a heavy burden for them, after their work at the factories, to take the same courses as the regular daytime students do. It is therefore recommended that legal provisions should be introduced which would provide a system of paid educational leave.

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[10] Edward G. Olsen [et al] *School and community.* New York, Prentice-Hall Inc., 1950. p. 15.

[11] Yutaka Okihara. "Role of Education for Industrial Development" paper presented to the *World Congress of Comparative Education Societies* held in Seoul, Republic of Korea in 1980. p. 8.

Turning to the functions of the community school, it is very important that such schools, especially if they are public schools, serve the community in a variety of ways. They are established for the needs of the community, are sponsored by the community, function for the community and should be controlled by the community. Therefore, the community school must be the centre of community life and growth. The school should be a place for continuing education of the people and a centre for cultural, social, political, and recreational activities in the community. Accordingly, in an ever-changing society in the urban/industrial context, every school should function as a stimulant and agent for change in the community.

This is the original function of a school. The school so far has not functioned in this way, however, because it has served only the privileged minority, helping them to get higher social positions at the expense of the poor majority. Furthermore, the structure, contents, and methods of the schools have been rigidly confined to the traditional patterns of textbook-centred and teacher-orientated training and discipline.

Recently, however, lower level schools have opened their doors to the general population by the introduction of compulsory education, and some have even organized adult education programmes and other community activities. In some countries, universities also have opened their facilities to the public through extension courses and extramural services, though many lofty scholars still hesitate to climb down from the isolated shelter of their ivory towers. In developing countries, universities should take a major role in the fields of adult/non-formal education, not only in research and leadership development but also in organizing courses and other activities at grass-roots level for the people of the community. In this sense, the Extramural Departments of the University of Singapore and the Chinese University of Hong Kong are good examples of university participation in adult education in urban communities.

There are also other types of university participation in adult education activities which are conducted in remote areas far from the university centres. Silliman University in the Philippines has been conducting several out-reach service programmes in remote islands, such as the Sumilon Extension Project and the Marina Extension Clinic. Another example is Keimyung University in the Republic of Korea which has Extension Projects in Kumi and Pohang industrial complexes for the factory workers and their families. It is clear that the university should no longer be subject to the monopoly of the elite and the wealthy few, but should be a learning centre for all people in the community.

Summary

The school must be the centre of life and growth of the people as well as a place for continuing education and cultural activities of the community. In this sense, it is recommended that schools and universities take an active role in adult/non-formal education by organizing courses and other activities for the grass-roots people of the community. The school should also provide educational programmes that are linked with workplaces so that poor students who are compelled to leave school and go to work can continue to work and still have access to education. This type of programme and other work-experience programmes that require a linkage between the school and the workplace should be provided by institutional or legal means.

National systems of adult education

Programmes of adult education nowadays, especially in Asia, cannot be totally left to voluntary organizations or individual enterprises with charitable or philanthrophic motives, as has been the method in Western nations. They should be integrated into the national education system based on the principles of lifelong education.

During the past few years, the importance of adult education has become more recognized by governments in many Asian countries such as Indonesia, the Philippines and Thailand where the status of adult education administration has been promoted. For example, the government of the Philippines put the Deputy Minister of Education in charge of Non-Formal Education in 1977, while the Thai government promoted the Division of Adult Education within the Department of General Education to the independent Department of Non-Formal Education in 1978. With funds from the World Bank, Indonesia launched in 1978 a large-scale Project for Community Education which covers the area where about 70 per cent of the Indonesian population live. Thailand has also been instituting new systems of Lifelong Education Centres in 24 provinces since 1977.

These efforts can be viewed as the respective governments' concern and investment in adult education. In many Asian countries, however, it seems that the priority of national education is still concerned largely with the formal education system of children and youth, especially the privileged and elite aspiring for upward social mobility.

In his proposal for a national system of lifelong education, Parkyn strongly emphasized the integration of the non-formal with the formal education system. In his conceptual model of lifelong education there is a series of education centres in sequential order: infant-care centres, primary education centres, secondary education centres, tertiary education centres, and adult education centres.[12] These sequential stages of education are, however, continuous and integrated with work and experience in the community.

To realize the ideals of integrating adult education with the total system of national education, it is most effective to set up legislative provisions and regulations. In Thailand, a scheme of developing lifelong education centres and promoting adult education as a function in the government structure was realized when the Ministry of Education issued regulations on lifelong education centres in 1975. Innovations in the adult education structure of the Philippines were also initiated by Presidential Decree No. 1139, which took effect in 1977. Japan enacted an independent Law of Social Education in 1948, which eventually created more than 16,000 civic centres (Adult Education Centres) and many other adult education facilities since then. Likewise, in the Republic of Korea, lifelong education provisions were inserted in the New Constitution which was adopted by the national referendum in October 1980.

As mentioned in the previous chapter, some countries have enacted Vocational/Industrial Training Acts to promote industrial development. Because these have been administered exclusively by the Ministry of Labour or a Vocational and Industrial Training Board, many of them remain isolated from the national education system and there is no effective co-ordination with other government ministries, especially with the Ministry of Education, or with organizations of workers' education. It may be beneficial for those Asian countries which are preparing legislation similar to that mentioned above to pay attention to the New Zealand Vocational Training Council Act of 1968 and the Norwegian Adult Education Act of 1977. The New Zealand Vocational Training Act is technically so well-designed that the Ministry of Education and the Ministry of Labour jointly execute and administer the Council in a co-operative and effective way. The Norwegian Adult Education Act is a comprehensive and rather unique one which is designed on the principles of lifelong education.

Conclusion

In a rapidly expanding city, there are many acute problems related to the process of urbanization and industrialization that are characterized by drastic changes in the patterns of human behaviour, and in the values and attitudes of the people. These changes are most observable in certain groups such as youth, women, the aged, and the poor. Adult/non-formal education could contribute in various ways to solving these problems by providing courses and programmes.

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[12] George W. Parkyn. *Towards a conceptual model of lifelong education.* Paris, Unesco, 1973.

In a newly-forming community effected by rapid urban and industrial development, there arises the problems of conflict and disintegration among different social groups. Programmes of adult education and community organization can play a major role in ameliorating these problems and thus promoting social integration. The importance of occupational adjustments and their related educational programmes should also be taken into account not only for migrant-workers but also for the indigenous residents and out-of-school youths.

Schools must be the centre of community life and growth as well as a place for continuing education and cultural activities of the community. In this sense, it is recommended that schools and universities take an active role in adult/non-formal education by organizing courses and other activities for the people of the community. Schools should also provide educational programmes that are linked with workplaces so that poor students who would be compelled to leave school and go to work could continue to work and still have access to education. These programmes and other work-experience programmes would have a greater chance of succeeding if they were provided for by legislative regulations.

As adult education has recently become recognized by the public as well as by governments, the status of adult education administration has been promoted in many Asian countries. Adult education in the future, however, should be integrated into the national education system when legislative provisions and regulations are being formulated. No development strategies should be formulated for the sake of development alone. Furthermore, no industrial and economic development policies in any country should overlook the social and cultural development of the people or neglect the amelioration of the quality of life of its citizens.

The pre-eminence of the individual in every society is to be taken as the supreme aim in the educational process of all men. In this respect, liberal or general education should be emphasized in the adult education curriculum for everyone: for the working class and the well-to-do, for the young and the old. "The ultimate true development is the gradual reshaping of the community mind. This means that modernization must rest upon the breath of an enlightened citizenry." [13] It is, therefore, imperative that citizenship education should be given a high priority in adult education.

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[13] Lucian Pye. "Modernization and the individual" *Report of International Conference on the Problems of Modernization in Asia.* Seoul, Korea University, 1965. p. 153.

Finally, as an instrument of personal well-being and national development, adult education should be designed to help people eliminate poverty, improve the quality of life, and promote social and economic prosperity on the principles of equality for all people. If these goals are attained, then it is possible to have a humane and just society. □

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ADULT EDUCATION AND WORKERS' EDUCATION

by B. C. Rokadiya

The labour force

During the decade 1970–80, the world population was estimated to have increased by 74 million per year of which 44 million were in the Asian region. The annual rate of increase in Asia was about 2 per cent. The situation varied from a high rate of population growth in India, Malaysia, the Philippines and Thailand to lower rates in China, Japan and the Republic of Korea. The population of Asian countries represents a large base, with a high rate of increase and high proportion of young persons, indicating a high potential of manpower supply.

Asia is a 'young' continent as reflected in 1970 when nearly 60 per cent of its population was under 25 years of age, with young people accounting for a substantial part of the increase in the labour force. From the educational standpoint the task is not merely to provide them with jobs, but to facilitate their education and training for employment or self-employment.

In the next decade, the world labour force is projected to increase by 28 million per year which includes 18 million in Asia. The annual rate of labour force increase in Asia will be about 1.9 per cent. Nearly 42 per cent of the world's total population is in the labour force while the corresponding proportion is lower in South Asia and higher in East Asia.[1] In India the workers formed 33 per cent (180 million) in 1976 as against 43 per cent of the total population in 1961.[2] The participation rate of the female labour force also varied widely among countries. The variation in the labour force in each country corresponds to the addition of new entrants to the labour market.

The number of persons engaged in agriculture is predominant in many countries of the region and varies from a high proportion in Nepal to a low proportion in Japan. Agricultural workers and cultivators form

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1. V.R.K. Tilak. *Manpower situation in Asian countries.* Bangkok, ILO Regional Office [197-?]
2. India. Ministry of Labour. Labour Bureau. *Indian labour statistics, 1976–1977.* Chandigarh [1977?]

70 per cent (124.80 million) of the total labour force in India. The number of professional and technical workers, craftsmen and manufacturing process workers constitutes a higher proportion in Japan than in India or Thailand.

Table 1 below reflects the situation in some of the Asian countries with regard to the structure of the economically active population by sex.

Table 1. Structure of economically active population by sex, 1971

Country	Economically active population (in 000's) Percentages shown in brackets		
	Male	Female	Total
India	149,146 (52.5)	31,339 (11.9)	180,485 (32.9)
Indonesia	27,575 (47.3)	13,686 (22.8)	41,261 (34.9)
Japan	33,810 (60.0)	20,700 (35.8)	54,510 (47.9)
Malaysia (West)	1,958 (44.2)	913 (20.9)	2,871 (32.6)
Pakistan	20,179 (52.1)	1,483 (4.3)	21,662 (29.5)
Philippines	10,509 (48.0)	5,736 (26.1)	16,245 (37.0)
Sri Lanka	3,312 (50.7)	1,176 (17.1)	4,488 (35.4)

Source: India. Ministry of Labour. Labour Bureau. *Pocket book of labour statistics, 1980.* [Chandigarh, 1981?]

An imbalance in the supply and demand of the labour force results in unemployment which has been on the increase in a number of countries in the region. For example, the rate of unemployment is 15 per cent in Sri Lanka, 9 per cent in Malaysia and 8 per cent in the Philippines. The problems faced by these countries differ according to the state of economic and social development as well as the size and structure of human and natural resources. In Japan the high rate of economic growth has shifted from previous labour surpluses to current labour shortages. In Sri Lanka the rate of unemployment is high yet at the same time a shortage of professional and skilled workers is being experienced. In India, the problem of unemployment has reached grave proportions. The total number of people searching for jobs in India jumped 13.1 per cent between 1978 and 1979. At the end of March 1980 the total number of unemployed stood at 14.7 million. In Indonesia the increase in employment is not keeping pace with that of the labour force. In the Democratic People's Republic of Korea the employment situation is quite favourable but the problem is the shortage of skilled workers for scientific and technical work to raise the level of technology and productivity. In Malaysia, the labour force is increasing more rapidly than employment opportunities and the possibility of absorbing labour in rubber plantations is limited. In the Philippines, the high rate of population and labour force increases are reflected in a surplus labour situation. In Singapore, the rapid expansion of the economy has led to manpower shortages. In Thailand, where the rate of population growth is rather high, and agriculture is still predominant, the rural labour force is swelling and the question of its fuller utilization is assuming importance. At the same time its economic development needs more skilled workers. In the Socialist Republic of Viet Nam, the immediate concern is the retraining and resettlement of war refugees and personnel discharged from the armed forces.

Unorganized labour and women workers. Besides wage-earners in the organized sector, a bulk of the labour force is in the unorganized sector. Data on such unorganized sector workers is unfortunately extremely uneven, not always reliable and almost non-existent in certain countries. The unorganized or informal sector has recently become recognized as an important subject of investigation by international agencies like the World Bank and ILO. The content as well as the size of the unorganized sector varies and it is important to understand its impact on the total quality of the labour force. For example, out of India's working population of 250 million today, about 25 million or 10 per cent work in factories and out of 5.5 million who enter the work-force every year, only 550,000 enter the organized sector. However, 90 per cent of its working population is in the unorganized sector, consisting mainly of the rural-urban working poor—displaced migrants, pavement dwellers, workers in cities, hawkers, those in domestic services, petty craftsmen, construction workers, the nomadic labour force and others. These are mostly first generation migrants to the cities of Calcutta, Delhi or Bombay, from other smaller towns, remote rural areas, or even tribal areas where incomes are at the subsistence level.

The quality of women workers and the employment of women deserves special attention since this is an area which has been almost totally ignored and it will in future be an area of special concern. According to the 1971 Census, there were 31 million women workers in India, out of which three million were in urban areas. The largest number (38 per cent) worked in the service sectors, while the manufacturing industries accounted for about 13 per cent of the female work-force. In the rural areas 13 per cent of women were in the work-force while in urban areas the figure was less than 7 per cent. Unlike western countries, even in the biggest cities, the number of women workers does not exceed 9 per cent. In several Asian cities recently, women have been increasingly employed in the service sector. There is some evidence that because of economic necessity and the gradual process of modernization, attitudes toward work are less rigid now in the urban areas.

More than 89 per cent of the women workers are illiterates. There is a preponderance of women in internal migration from rural to urban areas–mainly due to marriage. Ninety-four per cent of women in India are in the unorganized sector of the economy; 81.4 per cent are in agriculture and the rest work in non-agricultural occupations. The unorganized women workers are outside the reach of most laws that seek to protect the security and conditions of workers. The labour organizations are mostly absent and where they do exist, they are still in a formative stage and have had little impact on women.

The situation regarding female labour is varied in the Asian countries. Any attempt to assess the status of women workers in these countries should ideally start from the social framework–cultural norms and value systems and the economic necessities which will determine the extent of their role in participating in the economy. These considerations are important from the educational viewpoint as a strategy of education of women workers has to be in harmony with the culture processes and economic development.

There is some evidence that rural-urban migration of the poor has been increasing in recent years and this will be a continuing trend in the future, affecting the quality of the labour force and employment opportunities. According to one estimate in 1980, a third of the urban population (nearly 48 million persons) in India work in the urban service sector and live in slums.

Educational level of the labour force

The educational level of the labour force is a vital aspect of development planning in many countries. Nowhere in the world is the question more challenging than in the Asian region, where human resources are most abundant and still far from being fully or productively utilized for social and economic progress. Social and economic development is a complex process and the education of the labour force is a crucial element which often causes anxiety among those dealing with human resource development.

Wide variations can be observed in the educational composition of the labour force among countries of the region. The Asian region has more than half the world's illiterate population. According to Unesco estimates there were in 1970, in this region, 361 million illiterates in the age-group 15 and over—economically the most productive age-group. These figures exclude China, the Democratic People's Republic of Korea and the Socialist Republic of Viet Nam. The Asian region had 48.7 per cent of the estimated 742 million adult illiterates in the world. In 1970 there were six countries in this region which had 1 per cent or more of the world's illiterate population. (See Table 2).

Table 2. Illiteracy in Asia—age group 15 and over

Country	Number of illiterates (in millions)	Percentage of world's illiterates
Afghanistan	8.9	1.2
Bangladesh	25.8	3.5
India	208.1	28.0
Indonesia	30.3	4.1
Iran	10.9	1.5
Pakistan	24.9	3.3

These six countries alone formed 41.6 per cent of the adult illiterates of the world. The most disturbing aspect of the situation is that while the percentage of illiterates in the adult population in this region is likely to decline from an estimated 59.6 per cent in 1970 to 43 per cent in 1990, the absolute numbers, owing to population growth, are expected to increase from an estimated 357 million in 1971 to 451 million in 1990. The Asian picture of illiteracy of the active age-group 15 and over as in 1970 is shown below:

High illiteracy rates (more than 66 per cent): Afghanistan, Bangladesh, India, Iran, Lao People's Democratic Republic, Nepal, and Pakistan.

Medium illiteracy rates (33 per cent to 65 per cent): Burma, Democratic Kampuchea, Indonesia and Malaysia.

Low illiteracy rates (less than 33 per cent): the Philippines, Republic of Korea, Singapore, Sri Lanka and Thailand.

Despite efforts, the situation has not changed much during the last decade. The most marked disparity in illiteracy rates is observed between men and women as seen from Table 3 below. The rural-urban situation in adult population is also indicated in the table. In all cases the illiteracy rate of females exceeds that of males and the rural adult population suffers most from this disparity. The differential is most marked in those countries with an overall illiteracy rate greater than 60 per cent.

Table 3. Disparities in illiteracy rates: male/female; rural/urban

Country	Year	Urban/ Rural	Age Group	Percentage illiterate		
				Male	Female	Total
Afghanistan	1965		15+	88.0	99.0	93.6
	1970[1]		15+	85.2	99.5	92.2
	1975		6+	80.8	96.3	87.8
		Urban	6+	63.8	84.3	73.2
		Rural	6+	83.8	98.4	90.5
Bangladesh	1961**		13+	70.7	90.4	80.5
	1974**		13+	70.1	86.3	77.8
Burma	1962[1]		15+	20.0	60.0	40.3
	1970[1]*		15+	22.5	52.8	38.0
Democratic Kampuchea	1962		15+	37.7	89.6	63.9
		Urban	15+	17.4	71.9	42.2
		Rural	15+	40.0	91.5	66.1
	1970[1]*		15+	26.4	76.8	51.8
India	1961**		15+	58.6	86.8	72.2
		Urban	15+	31.5	62.8	45.3
		Rural	15+	65.4	91.8	78.4
	1971**		15+	52.3	80.6	65.9
		Urban	15+	27.6	54.5	39.6
		Rural	15+	59.4	87.0	72.9
	1977[1]**		15+	----	----	62.0
Indonesia	1961		15+	47.2	73.9	61.0
	1971		15+	30.5	55.4	43.4
		Urban	15+	12.4	33.9	23.3
		Rural	15+	34.5	59.9	47.8
	1978***		10+	----	----	26.9
Iran	1961[1]		15+	77.0	92.0	84.4
	1966		15+	67.1	87.7	77.2
		Urban	7+	38.6	61.7	49.6
		Rural	7+	74.6	95.7	84.9

Table 3. Disparities in illiteracy rates: male/female; rural/urban (cont'd)

Country	Year	Urban/ Rural	Age Group	Percentage illiterate Male	Female	Total
Iran (cont'd)	**1968**		6+	55.4	78.6	66.6
		Urban	6+	33.5	55.9	44.4
		Rural	6+	70.1	94.2	81.7
	1971		6+	52.3	74.5	63.1
		Urban	6+	31.3	51.9	41.4
		Rural	6+	68.1	91.7	79.6
Lao People's Democratic Republic	**1962**[1]		15+	70.0	73.0	71.7
	1970[1]**		15+	62.9	90.0	76.3
Malaysia[2]	**1962**		15+	41.0	52.0	47.2
	1970		15+	27.8	54.9	41.5
		Urban	15+	19.8	44.9	32.2
		Rural	15+	31.5	59.6	45.6
Mongolia	**1956**		9–50	....	....	4.6
Nepal	**1971****		15+	76.4	96.1	86.1
	1975**		15+	66.6	95.0	80.8
Pakistan	**1961**		15+	76.5	94.2	84.6
		Urban	15+	56.2	81.0	66.7
		Rural	15+	83.8	98.2	90.5
	1970[1]*		15+	59.9	94.9	76.7
	1972**		10+	62.2	86.6	73.3
		Urban	10+	42.7	67.6	53.9
		Rural	10+	69.8	94.0	80.8
Papua New Guinea	**1966**		10+	65.6	76.0	70.6
	1971		10+	60.7	75.6	67.9
Philippines	**1960**		15+	25.8	30.5	28.1
	1970		15+	15.7	19.1	17.4
		Urban	10+	6.0	8.2	7.2
		Rural	10+	19.8	22.8	21.3
	1975**		15+	....	....	15.0
Republic of Korea	**1960**		15+	16.6	41.8	29.4
	1966		15+	....	....	31.9
	1970		15+	5.6	19.0	12.4
		Urban	15+	2.0	9.3	5.7
		Rural	15+	8.5	26.6	17.8
Singapore	**1970**		15+	17.0	45.7	31.1

Table 3. Disparities in illiteracy rates: male/female; rural/urban (cont'd)

Country	Year	Urban/ Rural	Age Group	Percentage illiterate		
				Male	Female	Total
Sri Lanka	1963		15+	14.6	36.3	24.9
	1969		15+	10.6	27.6	19.1
		Urban	15+	....	....	11.7
		Rural	15+	....	....	20.7
	1971		15+	14.0	31.5	22.4
		Urban	15+	9.4	19.7	14.1
		Rural	15+	15.5	34.9	25.0
Thailand	1960		15+	20.7	43.9	32.3
	1970		15+	12.8	29.7	21.4
		Urban	15+	6.3	18.1	12.3
		Rural	15+	13.9	31.6	22.9

1. Estimates

2. West Malaysia only

Sources: * Office of Statistics. *Estimates and projections of illiteracy*, Paris. Unesco, 1978.

** Report of a Regional Experts Meeting, Bangkok, 22-28 November 1977, *Literacy in Asia: a continuing challenge*, Bangkok, Unesco, 1977.

*** Regional Literacy Workshop on Planning, Administration and Monitoring, Ho Chi Minh City, The Socialist Republic of Viet Nam, 25 April - 7 May 1980, *Country Reports*, Ho Chi Minh City, 1980.

Other figures: *Unesco Statistical Yearbook, 1976 and 1977.*

The major work-force of the Asian countries consists of adults employed in agriculture, industry, transport or communication in urban services and the bulk of the labour force is in the unorganized sector. Table 3 also shows that there are some countries where the illiteracy rate is about 80 per cent of the population. If nearly three-quarters of the total working force is illiterate what efficiency can be expected from it? Thus in most countries of the region the majority of adults have had no education or less than primary education. Nearly 100 per cent of workers in Japan and 85 per cent of Filipino workers have had primary education but only 10 per cent of the workers in India have reached this level. The achievement of literacy does not necessarily reflect participation in the formal education system as the majority of adults became educated outside the formal educational system.

Two of the major problems faced by the countries in this region are the current explosion of knowledge (particularly in science and technology) and an explosion of population. Signs of people having greater mobility and greater longevity are becoming visible, though to a limited extent. There is a sudden growth of political awareness. Women have just started entering modern professions. Automation tends to displace workers and render some of them unemployed. For adjustment to all these challenges, new knowledge and skills are necessary on a continuing basis.

Adult education of workers

Usage of the term. One of the immediate problems faced in considering this subject is the definition of terms. Defining a term is a hazardous occupation. It provides temptation for some to stand off and waste time in searching for faults and weaknesses. In fields where we do not have a unanimously accepted academic base, each person is inclined to define terms based on the background in which he has been reared. As used in this article adult education for workers means a series of organized adult education activities designed:

1. For those who have no education or little education;
2. For those who are employed or self-employed; and
3. To produce behavioural changes among adult workers.

Much time has been dissipated in endeavouring to either differentiate between these words or prove that they really mean the same thing. Adult education and workers' education are essentially concerned with adults. The terms symbolize varying subjects and activities, all under the banner of adult education of workers and includes and adult literacy and general education, development of human resources, further education, labour education, on-the-job training and education for industrial relations.

The rationale for adult education of workers

Economic development has become a by-word in most countries of the Asian region and every country is concerned with raising its living standard. One of the most important considerations of these nations is the need for increasing capabilities by the labour force. Adult education of workers is stressed for the following reasons:

1. The positive and direct correlation between education and productivity of labour and the consequent increase of the economy is a well substantiated fact. Increase in GNP can be directly attributed to a higher level of education of the labour force. Thus, literate workers are more productive and efficient than non-literate ones.

2. The quality of labour is just as important as or even more important than quantity. An untrained labour force, will yield a lower per-capita output.
3. Ignorant people cannot build up, operate and maintain an elaborate modern economy. The development of necessary skills to fill the jobs of a modern economy on farms, in factories and in cities is essential for the industrially developing countries in this region.
4. Inability to read and write is an enormous handicap in this space age as many ideas, instructions and pieces of information come in written rather than in oral form which means that a worker in a modern economy cannot adequately look after his own interest or that of his employer or his union without functional skills in reading and writing.
5. It is almost impossible to over-estimate the consequences of illiteracy which are affected in wages, in health, in productivity and in industrial relations.
6. Plans for urbanization and industrial development demand workers who can adjust to a new way of life in an industrial society under unfamiliar conditions and who are, at the same time, professionally skilled and trained for the production processes of any industrial enterprise. The role of the adult education of workers, therefore, becomes significant both basically and functionally.
7. Apart from meeting the need for trained manpower for widespread adoption of new machines and techniques, adult education also provides the enlightenment necessary to conquer ignorance and for inculcating the ability to adopt a new way of social, cultural, political and economic life.
8. For most of its manpower requirements, urban industry depends on the immigrants coming from a non-industrial, non-urban background; generally such migrants do not have special training or a vocational background for industrial and urban occupations. A number of them are illiterate or semi-literate, unskilled or semi-skilled, when they come in search of jobs from remote rural areas or smaller towns. These migrant labourers of various religious, ethnic, occupational, and linguistic groups are absorbed in the new surroundings and will require continuous educational induction to make a speedy adjustment.

Although it is true that as the rate of literacy increases, the recruits to the industrial concerns become more and more literate; by no stretch of the imagination can it be said that they have had all the education they need. In fact their education and training begins in a purposive way only after they are employed. It may also be noted that their motivation for education will be highest when they feel the need for that education which is functional as far as their work is concerned. While pre-service training, both general and vocational, provide the basic quantum of knowledge and skill, much of what the adult worker needs to learn will have to be provided during the period of his employment. The traditional assumption that an individual acquires in his youth the bulk of knowledge and skills required for his livelihood and for social living will have to end.

It is evident that adult education is the key to the supply of trained manpower; for the development of a strong sense of solidarity among the workers and making them responsible citizens. The need for adult education among workers is greatest in developing countries.

Various agencies and their roles

The education of workers has been of interest to a variety of agencies at the national level. Chief among these are the government labour organizations and employers' organizations. There are also examples of voluntary organizations and universities playing an important role for education of the working people.

Government. In the industrially developing countries of Asia, the governments employ the greatest number of workers. Their interest in improving the capabilities of workers for increasing productivity as well as personal development are obvious. The governments, therefore, play an important role through direct or indirect support. In India the Ministry of Labour has set up a Central Board for Workers Education—a tripartite autonomous organization having 41 regional centres. The Board's programme is entirely funded by the Government which provides a grant of 16 million rupees a year.[3] The Board provides educational courses to 200,000 workers every year—probably one of the largest programmes of adult education aimed at workers initiated by a government in the Asian region.

The main focus of the programme is on development of trade unionism and leadership. In the process the content and methods of the programme facilitate integration of adult functional literacy, population education, and rural workers' education. The Board also provides aid grants to meet 90 per cent of the expenditure on education of workers organized by any of the labour unions in the country.[4]

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[3] Approximately 8.85 Indian Rupees = One US dollar.

[4] From 1958 till March 1980, the Board provided educational courses to nearly 2,666,414 workers and additionally trained 54,581 worker-teachers.

A National Labour Institute was set up for the training of labour leaders and promotion of research in workers' education. For the technical and vocational training of workers, both full-time and part-time, the Ministry of Labour has set up a Directorate-General of Employment and Training. The Labour Welfare Funds Organization is also concerned with educational activities for workers. The Ministry of Education has launched an adult education programme which is aimed at illiterate and semi-literate adults in rural, urban and industrial areas. The National Board of Adult Education which is an apex body for co-ordinating and advising on the promotion and implementation of the programme enlists support of other Ministries as well as employers and labour organizations in promoting the education of workers. Under this programme nearly nine million adults were given instruction in 1979-80 at over 94,000 centres.

India's Ministry of Education and Culture has also set up a network of Polyvalent Adult Education Centres known as *Shramik Vidyapeeths* which offer educational courses to meet the multi-faceted needs of workers in the organized and unorganized sectors. These are substantially funded by the Ministry of Education and the resources supplemented by the participating organizations sponsoring their workers or collaborating/co-operating agencies, employers' and workers' organizations. Apart from the governmental organizations, an important role is played by public and private sector enterprises which have begun to demonstrate interest in pursuing workers' education both vocational and general. The Labour Bureau set up by the Ministry of Labour plays an important role in collecting data on the country's labour force situation and this is found useful by organizations for manpower planning and education and training.

Structures and organizations do exist in the Philippines, the Republic of Korea, Sri Lanka, Thailand and other countries. These play a significant role in adult education of workers through vocational education projects, mobile training projects, general education projects, equivalency programmes, functional literacy campaigns and population education projects both in urban and rural areas.

Employers. Some employers are conscious of their duties and obligations to the workers and there are several instances where employers have evinced active interest in the education and training of their employees. These employers have made various provisions such as leave, accommodation and reimbursement of expenditure for education and also organized adult education programmes for illiterate and semi-literate workers and skill upgrading programmes for unskilled and semi-skilled workers. Most employers, however, are concerned only with the technical skill of the worker and constantly neglect the human element in the training.

Unfortunately, except in a few isolated cases, employers both in the private and public sectors are concerned with immediate profits. The long-term interests of the workers, the development of industry and the nation's economic prosperity are distant goals which are not clearly visualized.

Labour unions. The role of labour unions in labour education is important, and successful to some extent. Concentration has mainly been on programmes that strictly focused on promoting labour education for urban workers. Trade unions have offered these programmes on their own, in most cases, in the countries of this region. Owing to inadequate financial conditions and lack of leadership from the rank-and-file, trade unions in India have been supported, by up to 90 per cent of the expenditure on short-duration educational courses, by the Central Board for Workers Education, set up to promote a stronger and healthier trade union movement in the country. The Textile Labour Association and the *Rashtriya Mazdoor Sabha,* which have taken the lead in offering more comprehensive adult education of workers are exceptional examples of labour organizations.

Trade unions have indeed played an aggressive role especially in the large urban and industrial areas. They have not so far been able to sufficiently involve themselves in the education of their members, however. This often makes the ill-educated worker vulnerable to political pressures and other forms of manipulation.

Other organizations. A number of non-governmental organizations and universities in India and also in a few other countries of the Asian region have taken some interest in the education and training of workers. Prominent among these are the Asian Regional College; University of Bombay; Tata Institute of Social Sciences; Delhi School of Social Work; Gujarat University, Ahmedabad; University of Calcutta and the University of the Philippines. A few universities in other countries including Sri Lanka have also taken some interest in workers' education. Certain voluntary organizations working particularly among unorganized workers in urban areas have also played a pioneering role such as the Indian Council of Social Welfare; Indian Adult Education Association; Bombay City Social Education Committee; Self-Employed Women's Association, Ahmedabad; Bengal Social Service League, Calcutta; Karnataka State Adult Education Association, Mysore in India; the YMCA and the YWCA and other religious organizations in several countries.

The universities and non-governmental agencies have had support in these activities either from their governments, international organizations or from the local community. The universities undertook these as a part of their research and extension activities and organized a series of seminars and conferences to raise the level of consciousness and leadership for the organization of workers.

Emerging trends

The term 'workers' education' is increasingly being applied to a number of differing educational efforts; vocational education, technical training, literacy and general education and trade union-oriented training. The usage of the term in the adult education of workers varies with the level of social and economic development of the country concerned.

Literacy and general education. Literacy is a necessity for workers if they are to perform anything more than basic unskilled manual labour. The struggle for survival and the demands of the labour market have caused many young men and women to abandon their schooling. Literacy education for illiterate workers is pre-requisite for general education and hence the need for literacy training is widely felt. Its importance to workers is obvious when one considers the lack of formal school facilities for the population as a whole; the rural background of many workers who have migrated to cities and the poverty of these workers which precludes access to any education that might be available for payment of a fee.

The illiterate workers are very often inarticulate and unorganized. They are also vulnerable to exploitation. The time has arrived when one can no longer neglect the vast labour resources inherent in the large groups of illiterate adults.

Literacy programmes sponsored by trade unions are exceptions rather than the rule. In recent years, the governments of countries where illiteracy is a major problem have initiated widespread adult education programmes and campaigns as a part of their developmental efforts. These programmes are especially aimed at the rural and the urban poor and in this effort, the support of employers, universities, colleges, public sector enterprises and non-governmental organizations is being enlisted through persuasive means rather than by legislative pressures. In countries where programmes of widespread formal education were launched, the emphasis is now placed on more general forms of non-formal learning on a continuing basis. The academic stream of the equivalency programme in Thailand, social education in Japan, experimental open schools and evening schools in India and widespread post-literacy and follow-up efforts provide a few examples.

Vocational and technical training. The second aspect of development is the education and training of labour by teaching employment and self-employment skills. An acute shortage of certain skills essential to industrialization and urbanization is widely acknowledged. Infrastructures have been created for educating a sufficiently large number of professional persons to meet the initial demand for trained personnel. At the other extreme are the unskilled and semi-skilled manual workers who are still largely bound to a subsistence economy and who possess no unique skill that can help them in the new urban and industrial environment. These, unfortunately, constitute the great majority of the population. At present a large rural population has not been provided with the requisite training or even literacy for learning skills. The use of many devices is, however, discernable in most of the countries. Governments are developing technical training institutes while industries in public and private sectors are intensifying induction courses, on-the-job training, apprenticeship schemes and skill up-dating programmes. The trade unions in this region though sympathetic, have taken limited direct interest in the area of vocational development of workers.

These on-going programmes are in no way sufficient to meet the training needs of the entire labour force, yet they are worthy of note. There is much room for improvement of these programmes, sponsored by government and non-government organizations, trade unions and employers for the purpose of increasing the productivity of the workers.

Trade union-oriented labour education. The aspect of workers' education oriented to fostering trade union consciousness is probably the most important development. The belief that without a strong development programme and effective union leadership, none of the educational benefits can be accrued underlies the whole effort of labour unions. Trade unions need qualified and trained leaders for the training of the rank-and-file, to overcome illiteracy and ignorance which are the greatest handicaps to effective advancement of the trade unions and their members. Trade unions currently find educational resources grossly inadequate for a direct programme of education for the rank-and-file. They have, however, shown explicit concern for labour education intended to provide workers with a general understanding of their role in society and their environment, knowledge and understanding to assert their economic rights through claims for higher wages, shorter working hours, better working conditions and protection against the arbitrary action of employers.

These are basically the lessons learnt from experiences gained by trade unions in western countries. A catalogue of trade union activities can be seen in the form of leadership training of the officials and potential leaders of the unions who wish to know and define their legal rights and to discharge their responsibilities as workers and union members. Courses and services focus on subjects such as union administration, techniques of collective bargaining and negotiations, labour laws, wage determination, effective communication, participation in management and so forth. Trade unions are, however, becoming predominantly accepted institutions and leading organized groups in Asian countries. There is some evidence that labour education at grassroots-level has become effective in making workers, who would otherwise be passive, think and act about their right to protest.

Concern for labour education and leadership training has been expressed by the universities as an extension service in certain countries of the region (e.g. India and the Philippines), as well as by workers' organizations, associations and confederations of trade unions, set up with the support of ILO/UNDP structures and grants. The unique character of labour education in India is that it has been facilitated by the Government through the creation of a scheme entirely financed by the Government since 1958. There is a tripartite interest in promoting education of workers through the programmes conducted by the Central Board for Workers Education at its 41 regional centres and the Indian Institute of Workers' Education.

Polyvalent approach. While literacy, vocational training and trade union orientation assist in the education of workers, each is concerned with only a portion of the worker's life. Some of them are concerned with employment, others with their personal lives and well-being and some with their primary or initial basic education. Going against this univalent emphasis, programmes based on a polyvalent (multifaceted) approach have been developed in India through the establishment of a network of *Shramik Vidyapeeths* (Polyvalent Education Centres). The programme represents adult education of workers in urban and industrial areas, tailored to match the educational needs of homogenous groups of workers–illiterate, semi-literate or literate; skilled, semi-skilled or unskilled; and men and women in organized and unorganized sectors.

Polyvalent centres provide opportunities for working people, including the self-employed, to upgrade and update their knowledge and skills in respect of their various–technical, academic, literacy and civic–needs to the multifaceted role of the worker as an operative, as a parent and spouse, as a union member and as a citizen. There are no predesigned or predetermined programmes. The programmes of the centres are directly related to the functional needs of workers and take into account their learning requirements related to the environment of their work and homes. These needs are ascertained by periodic surveys and regular interviews with the participating workers and in consultations with specialists and knowledgeable persons.

The curricula, designed by the internal staff in consultation with outside experts, are flexible and regularly revised and the duration of courses is kept elastic to suit the nature of demand. Different educational subjects are usually given not as separate 'fields' as they are done in traditional programmes, but in an integrated and inter-dependent manner. In order to contribute to the development of the overall 'personality' of the participants the content unit which deals both with cultural and civic education is given along with units on vocational skill-training and integrated into the global syllabus aimed at helping the participants to arrive at a deeper understanding of the characteristics of, and the problems facing, their immediate environment. Central to the curricula designs and methods of teaching and learning are the workers whose participation in the process is of utmost importance. Employed mainly on a part-time basis, the instructors are selected from among specialists in a particular craft, profession or field. The instructors are provided with special briefing and oriented to courses in adult education methods and techniques.

The permanent staff is kept to a minimum and usually consists of, apart from administrative and secretarial staff, a director and a few programme officers who are specialists in technical and vocational training, labour studies and general education, research and curriculum design, techniques of communication and documentation. Though some classes meet in the centre, just as many are held in school buildings during after-school hours, factories, trade union buildings, labour welfare centres and community centres. Civic and cultural events and programmes are arranged, both within and outside the centres, not only for workers but for the benefit of the working community at large.

The cost of establishing and maintaining a polyvalent centre is relatively low because of the calculated use of existing premises, equipment and other facilities in the urban setting. The initial capital outlay and the greater part of the recurrent costs are necessarily borne by public funds by the Ministry of Education, but many centres also turn for support to local interests, especially to labour unions, industrial and business concerns and government offices. Some centres require the organizations sponsoring workers to pay fees or reimburse the cost of training to their workers.

The success of a Polyvalent Centre ultimately hinges upon the intimacy of its connection with the local community and its ability to respond effectively to felt needs. For this reason, the governing boards or committees consist of representatives of the various interested groups: workers, employers, government and non-governmental organizations, women workers and urban planners. In conducting programmes, collaboration is sought with labour organizations, managers of enterprises, social work agencies, labour welfare departments, women's organizations, municipal corporations and employers in both the public and private sectors.

India has nine cities that have a population of more than a million and over 150 with more than 100,000 people. The Polyvalent Centres are envisaged to be set up in places which are at different stages of industrial development and urbanization. A typical centre is able to provide polyvalent programmes for 3,000-5,000 workers every year, depending upon the size of the centre and the response from the community in which it is located. A variety of informal programmes and services are also offered to workers and their families.

Even the scheme's modest achievements have been enough to convince planners and administrators of the validity of the polyvalent approach. This is shown by the fact that India's development plan has provided for an expansion of this programme to other urban areas in the country. There is also a noticeable trend to incorporate the polyvalent concept and approach to other adult and continuing educational programmes for urban workers provided by employers and enterprises and non-governmental bodies. Unesco has recently shown interest and considered it as a model which could be tried by other developing countries interested in similar programmes of adult education for workers.

Basically the Polyvalent Centre symbolizes the growing awareness of the need for continuing, lifelong and recurrent education for a developing society and has been an area of an exploratory effort related to the educational and professional growth of the rank-and-file workers (and where possible his family) employed or self-employed in various sectors in urban and semi-urban areas. Its main function is to innovate methodologies, try alternatives and develop programmes considered functionally meaningful.

Perception of new dimensions. The aims and purpose of workers' education have remained basically tied to the overall purpose and activity of the ILO in social development and social justice. The workers' education programmes in Asia have new tasks added to their traditional educational system and programmes. Education of workers is not being construed as a limiting exercise and workers' organizations are getting involved more and more in educational development in the non-formal sector. In their new roles, workers organizations in the Asian region are beginning to support and encourage development of adequate technical and vocational training of workers and work towards the development of a learning society through literacy and continuing adult education facilities.

A new pattern of self-help is emerging, and growing out of the concept of workers' solidarity and mutual aid. Trade unions are embarking on worker-owned enterprises where the value of popular participation in social economic and enterprise development is recognized. Trade unions through workers' education are addressing themselves to the task of training and education for working and for meaningful participation in social, economic and enterprise management. With the emergence of substantial trade union self-help projects in many countries, worker education confronts tasks of developing managerial and administrative skills and vocational training essential for the success of such activities as the organization of rural workers' education, co-operative credit unions, literacy training centres, health and welfare centres, enterprises geared to employment opportunity and workers' banks.

National trade unions are taking a more active interest in educational work and a number of organizations like the Swedish International Development Agency (SIDA) and ILO/UNDP/Unesco are helping strengthen the national efforts. A series of seminars and educational programmes are being arranged on a vast variety of subjects in all the countries of the Asian region. The implementation of comprehensive workers' education is now beginning to be felt. Seen from this perspective, adult education and workers' education are not wholly unrelated subjects or areas.

Problems and prospects

Problems. The predominantly rural character and agricultural base of most countries in the region conceals rapid growth of urban areas and an expanding industrial sector. A large number of workers are employed in manufacturing and processing factories, mainly in urban centres, and the vast majority of them are still unskilled or semi-skilled, illiterate and semi-literate. While, on the one hand this keeps their wages low, governed almost entirely by bargaining capability, on the other, this is one of the most important single factors in the low productivity and technological backwardness of the industries and business and commercial enterprises. This feature of under-development and under-utilization of human resources calls for a serious review of priority in the educational approach, especially towards urban working classes.

There are at least two other factors that hamper the industrial progress of these countries: one relates to the predicament of the urban worker and his family; and the other to his place as a citizen of a democratic society. Exploitation of workers, their handicaps and the social and cultural deprivations to which they are subjected are now generally appreciated. A few of the characteristic features of their predicament are:

1. Migration trauma—a large section of urban workers comprises migrants from rural areas who undergo a natural shock when they

arrive in an urban setting and they are specially susceptible to various forms of exploitation;

2. Periods of unemployment–lock-outs, industrial diseases, automation, modernization and so forth cause unemployment or fear of it;
3. Living in slum conditions–owing to municipal neglect and lack of interest in urban planning and improving the conditions and lack of a desire among workers to improve their own environment;
4. Family tensions–the size of family is generally large and living in new surroundings to which most of them are unaccustomed leads to strains and excessive tension and also results in neglecting family responsibility; and
5. Educational deprivation–there are hardly any arrangements for education of workers employed or self-employed on a continuing basis.

Workers and their families must acquire a critical awareness of their predicament, they must understand the real causes of their deprivation and backwardness and they must acquire the will and skill to overcome them. Thus the urban industrial sectors comprise the milieu in which most of the factors of national concern acquire a peculiar and sharper focus. The major problem is the utilization of over-abundant labour, particularly in the unorganized sector and those who are unskilled and semi-skilled, illiterate and semi-literate. This is as serious a problem as the shortage of high-level critical skills. The supply of unskilled and untrained labour is rising–in India it is growing at the rate of 1.5 and 2 per cent a year–and is likely to exceed available employment opportunities. This will call for the examination of a cluster of questions related to employment capacity, connection between shortages and surpluses, incentives and type of technologies. These are interdependent considerations.

Advances have been made for the further education, continuing education and updating of knowledge and skills, particularly of high-level personnel and several facilities and structures have been created; for example, there are national level institutions like the Indian Institute of Public Administration, Administrative Staff College, National Productivity Council, and National Institute of Educational Planning and Administration in India. The major concern is with the rank-and-file who cannot be motivated on their own and for whom facilities will have to be provided. Most of the employed labour force is connected with subsistence labour and generally less than 10 per cent is connected with the market economy in many countries of this region. The institutions for on-the-job training are not well developed or properly utilized. So far, wide participation in labour unions has not happened. This results from a number of factors including generally poor communication, widespread illiteracy and lack of education.

Literacy is a pre-condition to all aspects of worker education whether it is technical and vocational upgrading, labour education or citizenship and family life education. The attempts made at the education of workers are largely influenced by western models. It is necessary to modify the prevailing patterns of worker education to suit the needs of developing countries and also to make the best use of limited resources. Reliable data regarding the labour force is available only in a few countries and this too is derived from census reports and manpower surveys which are not always accurate.

Prospects. With the increase of industrial activity in the region the numbers and strength of the workers will increase. As science and technology advances, the workers have to be trained to meet the demand for new skills and also to adapt themselves to changing situations. With the progress of democracy the workers will become more aware of their rights and obligations as citizens and of the possibilities for active participation in public and private matters. Hence the need for worker education will continue to increase.

With the advent of mass media workers are becoming more conscious of a better life and will no longer resign themselves to their fate. The sense of frustration and of being exploited is greater when the workers realize that they have been deprived of educational opportunities. No government committed to development can ignore the unfulfilled aspirations of the section of its people who bear the brunt of development. The biggest ambition of the workers is to move up in their jobs so that their social and economic status will improve. Hence the need for upgrading of skills and general education. Education and training should lead to increased efficiency and productivity without reducing the worker to a cogwheel in a big machine. The humanizing factor should be there so that the worker retains his personality.

Adult education of workers should take a three-pronged thrust. Society should bear the responsibility for providing the educational and cultural needs of workers. Employers have to take a long-range view of the efficiency and health of the worker and the effects on industry. The workers must be made aware of the methods of improving their socio-economic standards and of contributing to the advance of industry. When there is a general awareness in society regarding its obligations towards the workers, the government, the employers and the labour unions will respond, and various organizations will undertake the training programmes.

Adult education of workers need not be only a governmental responsibility. Many employing agencies–public or private–will, it is hoped, give the necessary physical facilities and financial allocations for workers' education programmes as an integral part of their organizations. This should include subsidizing workers' attendance at such programmes through paid education leave, promotion incentives and facilities like wage increments, book and material allowances and provision of libraries and reading facilities.

In industrially developing Asian countries today, the preoccupation is with social and economic development as the basis for nation-building. Sometimes the emphasis is on social development, sometimes on economic growth, but always on changing the traditional economic backward society into a modern powerful nation. Workers' education is a part of this reality. The need is to interlink it with the changes to be brought about and the goals of development based on new values and purposes.

Suggestions

There is common agreement on the desirability of workers' education among governments, labour unions, employers and society at large. From a review of what has been done it appears that this combined effort has achieved very little. In contrast to the experiences of the developed countries, workers' education in developing countries of this region must respond to serve political and social problems arising from the peculiar nature of the development processes and not merely imitate the models and values of countries in the West. It should also be interlinked with the real goals of development. The education of workers, which originally focused on the development of skills and knowledge related to the organization and administration of the union and on the traditional function of collective bargaining, should now be adapted to respond to new, complex and dynamic roles.

The education of the working class is confronted with new tasks and the work that needs to be undertaken is considerable. The target, in fact, should be the total population, not only the working class, but the labour leaders, employers and managers of enterprises, and governmental authorities in order to raise their level of awareness, understanding and empathy for education of workers. In this task the problem of seeking co-operation and collaboration from labour unions, employers and governments is widely recognized. In considering improvements it may be wise to examine the questions and issues raised below:

The goals of adult education of workers. The education of workers is concerned with the improvement of the quality of life and it is aimed at meeting needs at individual and group level. The goals, therefore, must outline not only national objectives but also take into account the views and needs of groups and individuals. In the planning process for development, consideration must be given to the importance of placing due weight on social factors in which the continuing education of the working class is clearly an important element.

The scope and content of education of workers. The content of education of workers will no doubt be determined by national, community and individual goals. An important consideration is to bring consumers into consultations on curricula in order to avoid determining content solely on the advice of centralized specialists and political leaders. Of utmost importance is the learning needs of women workers whose number is increasing, and those in the unorganized sector who are severely deprived. Special attention should be paid to handicapped and disabled workers who have the potential to make a valuable contribution and deserve encouragement.

Agencies and their roles. A great variety of agencies are involved in the education of the working class: governmental and non-governmental organizations, universities, trade unions and co-operative and business undertakings. Apart from sharpening their role, there is a need to establish a close relationship between the statutory and non-statutory agencies so that all available resources can be used in a co-ordinated and co-operative manner to the benefit of the working class as a whole.

Administration. The responsibility of education of workers is presently vested in different agencies. Literacy programmes, for example, are undertaken by the Ministry of Education; labour education and technical training is considered the domain of the Ministry of Labour and other public authorities as well as trade unions. Questions related to governmental control over those agencies of education of workers may have to be examined. Because of the multiplicity of agencies, co-ordinating machinery is of the greatest significance. The means of co-ordination may be both formal and informal; the formal is usually statutory and the latter is of a voluntary nature.

Adult education of workers generally lacks legalized status. Yet legislation is essential in order to delineate the framework in which education of workers can operate. This will help to legally enshrine education as the workers' right, and workers' education may get to play its part in the development process by helping under-privileged and disadvantaged groups of workers to improve their conditions.

Staff training. The development of educational activities of workers as an integral part of the total development process depends on people who are responsible for education and training, whether as teachers, administrators, supervisors, planners, technicians, labour leaders of committee members. Recruiting, training and maintaining personnel is therefore a crucial task on which workers' education hinges. All the structures and organizations become meaningless without competent people. The Asian countries have developed some expertise by utilizing their own experiences, but this particular area calls for greater support from the regional organizations to promote inter-country sharing of expertise to strengthen training structures at the national and regional level. The desirability of promoting this form of aid and support deserves priority consideration.

Research and development. Industrialization is a new experience for most of the countries of the region and hence they are inexperienced in evolving appropriate structures for research related to workers' education and development. This will involve linking universities, special institutions, departments and agencies concerned with the education of workers and staffing and financing them.

Methods, materials and media. The review of programmes undertaken by various agencies reveals that the approaches employed are unsuitable and fail to sustain the interests of the workers who are under no compulsion to participate in the learning process. If adult workers are treated as children there will be resistance. The traditional 'talk and chalk' method will have to be replaced by appropriate written materials; and if greater numbers are involved, the use of correspondence courses, radio and TV has to be considered.

Communications and flow of information. Workers' education embraces a multitude of activities, covers a wide range of subjects at various levels and takes place in many public and private institutions. Hence it is easy for one institution to work in isolation and fail to profit by the other's experience. The institution of a system through which useful information could be gathered and disseminated is a point which should receive consideration.

International support. There are a number of organizations that are international or regional in character and which affect structures or programmes in Asian countries. Most of the international organizations deal with education and training of workers. The major international and intergovernmental organizations that are involved in the education and training of workers are the ILO, Unesco, UNDP, the International Confederation of Free Trade Unions (ICFTU) and the Asian-South Pacific Bureau of Adult Education (ASPBAE). Of these, the ILO and Unesco are the organizations which have an overall mandate in the area of comprehensive adult education of workers. The interest of other specialized agencies is also seen. Certain bilateral agencies have recently shown marked interest in promoting the education and training of workers. The type of support given by the international agencies to strengthen the national programmes needs to be defined. This might provide guidance in the formulation of national programmes and strengthen the ongoing activities initiated by governments in the Asian region.

Towards an appropriate strategy. The education of workers, both in the organized and unorganized sectors constitutes a special aspect of continuing education, requiring its own strategies, institutional arrangements and techniques. Some of the countries in the region have realized this and there are moves towards well planned action. But if workers' education benefits only the 10 per cent or less of the workers who are employed in the formal sector and leaves out the 90 per cent in the informal sector inequalities are bound to persist; for the majority of the working class will be left out of the mainstream of development. The biggest challenge, therefore, is how to involve all the workers in the process of lifelong education so as to improve their quality of life and enable them to contribute to and benefit from socio-economic development.

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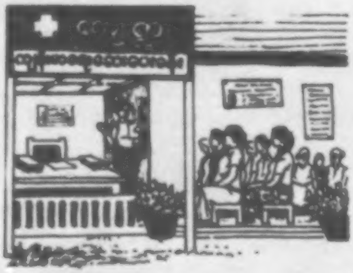

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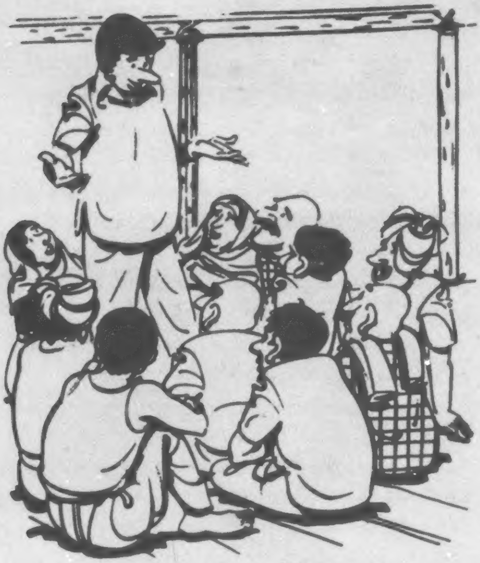

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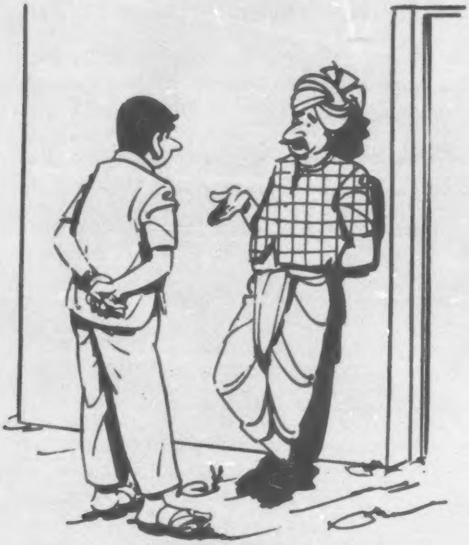

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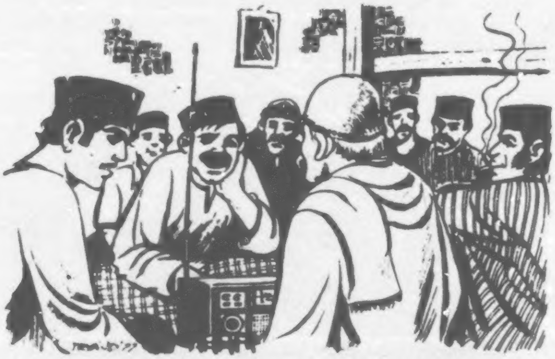

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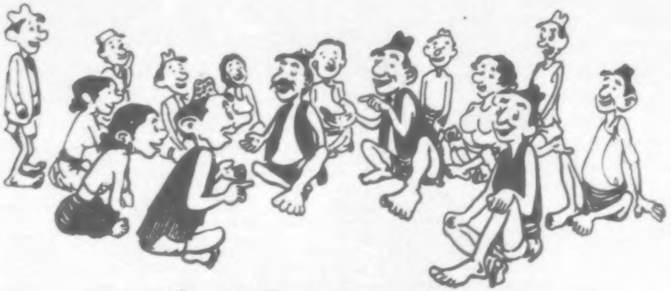

अनौपचारिक शिक्षा छलफलबाट शुरु हुन्छ। *

Non-formal education begins with discussion.

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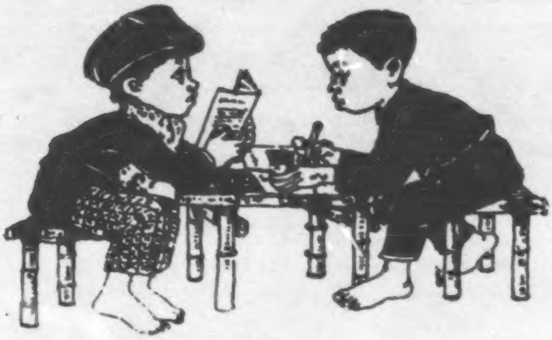

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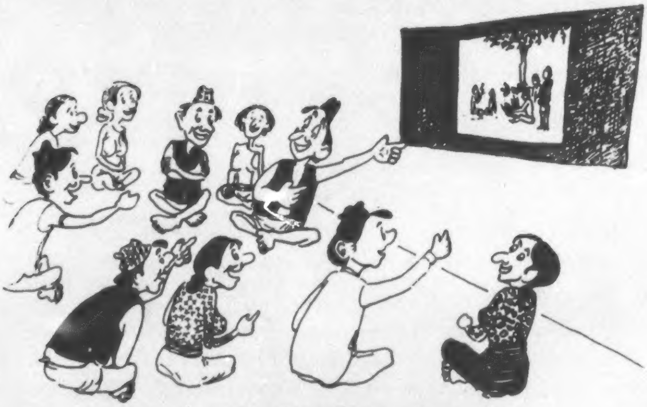

छलफल गराउने तस्वीरहरूले सहभागीहरूलाई
गाउँको समस्या बारे सोच्न लगाउँछन्।

The discussion posters can help the participants think about the problems of their village.

Source: **Tribhuvan University. Research Centre for Educational Innovation and Development. Integrated Non-formal Education Programme. *Facilitator guidebook.* Kathmandu [1980?] p. 30–31**

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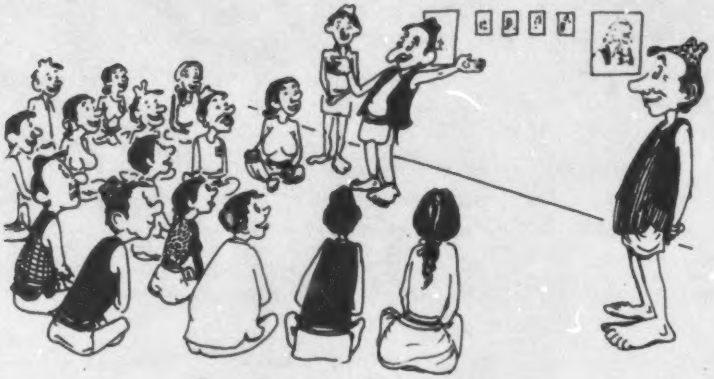

चित्रहरूले कामका योजनाहरू बनाउनमा
मद्दत गर्छन्।

Pictures can help in making plans.

Source: **Tribhuvan University. Research Centre for Educational Innovation and Development. Integrated Non-formal Education Programme. *Facilitator guidebook.* Kathmandu [1980?] p. 35**

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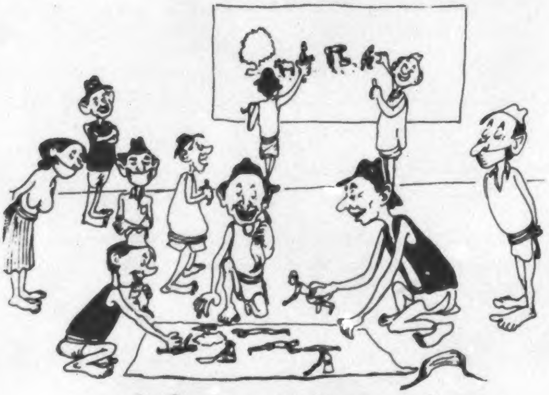
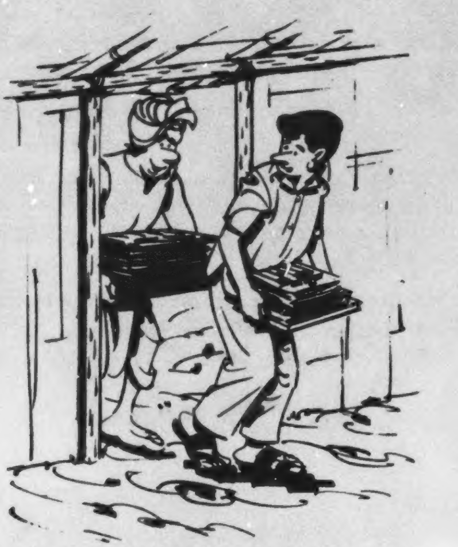


टुक्रे चित्रहरू प्रयोग गरेर सहभागीहरूले
आफ्नो मनमा लागेका कुरा बताउन
सक्छन्।

By using the flexiflans the participants can express what is on their minds.

Source: Tribhuvan University. Research Centre for Educational Innovation and Development. Integrated Non-formal Education Programme. *Facilitator guidebook.* Kathmandu [1980?] p. 27



We are going to establish a kind of library-cum-community centre which will be a permanent feature of our village life. May be this is going to be out first step towards a learning society.

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Adult Education Information Notes (Quarterly) (Formerly *Literacy – a Newsletter*)	Adult Education Section Division of Structures and Content of Lifelong Education Unesco, 7 Place de Fontenoy, 75700 Paris, France
Aran, Adult Reading Assistance Newsletter (Quarterly)	National Council of Adult Education P.O. Box 12–114, Wellington, New Zealand
ASPBAE Courier Service (3 times a year)	Asian-South Pacific Bureau of Adult Education P.O. Box 1225, Canberra City, A.C.T. 2601 Australia
Australian Journal of Adult Education (3 times a year)	The National Secretary Australian Association of Adult Education P.O. Box 1346, Canberra City 2601, Australia
Comparative Education (3 times a year)	Carfax Publishing Company Haddon House, Dorchester-on-Thames Oxford OX9 8JZ, England
Continuing Education in New Zealand (Twice a year)	P.O. Box 12–114 Wellington North, New Zealand
Convergence (Quarterly)	International Council for Adult Education P.O. Box 250, Station F Toronto, Canada

Title	Publisher, Address
Education and Development (Annual)	Research Centre for Educational Innovation and Development Tribhuvan University Panipokhari, Kathmandu, Nepal
Education in Asia and the Pacific: Reviews, Reports and Notes (Once a year; in September)	Unesco Regional Office for Education in Asia and the Pacific G.P.O. Box 1425, Bangkok, Thailand
The Education Quarterly (Quarterly)	Ministry of Education and Social Welfare New Delhi, India
EPA Bulletin (Quarterly)	National Institute for Educational Planning and Administration, New Delhi, India
ET Newsletter	Department of Education, South Gujarat University Surat, India
Experiments in Education (Monthly)	The S.I.T.U. Council of Educational Research No. 169, R.K. Mutt Road Raja Annamalaipuram, Madras-28, India
FAPE Review (Quarterly)	Fund for Assistance to Private Education Concorde Condominium Corner Saludo/ Benavides Street Legaspi Village, Makati Metro Manila, Mcc P.O. Box 947, Philippines
Indian Journal of Adult Education (Monthly)	Indian Adult Education Association 17-B, Indraprasth Marg New Delhi, 110002, India
INNOTECH Journal/ Newsletter	SEAMEO Regional INNOTECH Center 3rd Floor, College of Education Building University of the Philippines Diliman, Quezon City, Philippines
Interchange; VERC Newsletter (Bi-Monthly)	Information Service Village Education Resource Center Anandapur, Thana Road Savar, Dacca, Bangladesh
Journal of Non-Formal Education (Varasarn Karn Suksa Nok Rong Reaw) in Thai (Previously *Journal of Adult Education)* (Six issues a year)	Non-Formal Education Development Division Department of Non-Formal Education Ministry of Education Bangkok
Journal of the Karnataka State of Education (Monthly)	Door No. 964, 2nd Main Road, 4th Block Rajajinmagar, Bangalore - 10, India
Literacy News (Monthly)	Indian National Art Press 173 Ramesh Dutta Street Calcutta 700006, India

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Literacy Review	The International Institute for Adult Literacy Methods P.O. Box 1555, Teheran, Iran
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Maharashtra Educational Journal (Monthly)	Maharashtra State Federation of Headmasters' Associations 171, Budhwar Peth, Poona 2, India
New Frontiers in Education (3 times a year)	C-6 Community Center (Opposite I.I.T.) Main Gate, Safdarjung Development Area New Delhi, 110016, India
PACE (Paragraphs About Continuing Education) (6 times a year)	National Council of Adult Education Wellington, New Zealand
Quest in Education (Quarterly)	Indian Council of Basic Education Gandhi Shikshan Bhavan Gandhi Chowk, Vile Parle (West) Bombay 56, India
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Teacher Today (Quarterly)	Department of Education Rajasthan, Bikaner (Raj), India
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ABOUT THE BULLETIN

The Bulletin was published twice annually from 1966 to 1972. Since 1973, it has been an annual publication. Each issue contains a bibliographical supplement. Copies of Bulletin Numbers 21 and 22 are still available. All previous issues are out of print but may be consulted in libraries.

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